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ABSTRACT

This report is the second part of a manpower study on population, education, academic preparation, socioeconomic characteristics, and employment for various ethnic groups. It expands upon Part 1 by containing additional and more extensive discussion and supportive data in tabular and figure form. This part includes comparisons between the United States, the Midwest Region, Indiana, and the 22 Indiana counties having at least 1,000 members of minority groups in their populations in 1980. Data are presented in these categories: population (census, birthing patterns), educational trends (adult educational levels, K-12 enrollment, secondary school dropout, college enrollment), student academic preparation (tested ability or achievement, educational needs), socioeconomic trends (illegitimate births, household and family characteristics, income level, higher education financial aid needs), and employment trends (employment status, occupational comparisons, industry employment comparisons). Over 90 tables and maps are provided. Attachments include a listing of publications and 10 papers on the educational status of black Americans, Hispanics in the labor market, trends in reading, minorities in higher education, employment policies, school reform, and Jobs for Youth/Chicago. (YLB)

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ED275853

IMPLICATIONS OF CHANGING ETHNIC-GROUP REPRESENTATION IN THE POPULATION: UNITED STATES, MIDWEST, INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES

(PART 2)

"To the extent that any person does not succeed we are all diminished."

MANPOWER REPORT 86-7
NOVEMBER 27, 1986

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IMPLICATIONS OF CHANGING ETHNIC-GROUP REPRESENTATION IN THE POPULATION: UNITED STATES, MIDWEST, INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES

(PART 2 OF 3 PARTS)

FOREWORD

This manpower study presents data on population, education, academic preparation, socio-economic characteristics and employment for various ethnic groups in three separate reports (parts). Trends are identified and comparisons are made between Indiana, Regional and National situations. Data are presented separately for selected Indiana counties due to startling differences in the concentration of ethnic groups. Projections show growing proportions and diversities of Minorities with significant differences in characteristics among groups.

Presentation of this information is not meant to put down any group or to point fingers at anyone. Rather, it is meant to make us aware of the changing human resources environment and accompanying economic situation so that we can effectively cooperate among ourselves to provide appropriate opportunities for all citizens to develop to and perform at the highest levels possible.

PART I was published as Manpower Report 86-2, dated 31 March 1986 (general title as above). It contains broad findings, highlights, selected summary data and related information, including comparisons among the U.S, Indiana and four Indiana counties with the largest Minority populations:

Marion County
Lake County
Allen County
St. Joseph County.

PART II (this report), an expansion of Part I, contains additional and more extensive discussion and supportive data in tabular and figure form, including comparisons between the U.S., the Midwest Region, Indiana and the 22 Indiana counties having at least 1,000 Minorities in their populations in 1980. These counties are

Marion County
Lake County
Allen County
St. Joseph County
Vanderburgh County
Madison County
LaPorte County
Delaware County
Vigo County
Elkhart County
Grant County
Monroe County
Howard County
Clark County
Tippecanoe County
Wayne County
Floyd County
Porter County
Miami County
Bartholomew County
Johnson County
Hamilton County

PART III is comprised of extensive and detailed appendices containing U.S., Midwest, Indiana, and selected-county data applicable for historical reference, planning, or further research. The corresponding appendices in Part III are referenced in Part II. Specific demographic and socio-economic data and information in these reports show that significant changes in the U.S. and Indiana are occurring in rather specific locations in a number of ways.

**This report was prepared pursuant to a grant from Lilly Endowment, Inc. Points of view or opinions do not necessarily represent those of Lilly Endowment or Purdue University.*

Those who might think that the size of Indiana's Minority population, now 10 percent of the total, is relatively "small," should note that:

- Indiana's Minority population is already well over a half-million persons,
- One out of every four babies being born in the four counties with the largest populations is Non-White,
- One out of every six babies being born in the twenty-two counties which have more than 1,000 Minorities in their populations is Non-White, and
- These Non-White representation rates are growing steadily.

It will be up to civic leaders, educators, policy makers and others to respond to these emerging realities that will pose problems, challenges and opportunities. The authors hope that these publications will assist in actions which will promote equality, strengthen the economy, and provide all citizens with opportunities for a successful life.

QUOTES OF NOTE

Bill Liu, an American-Chinese living in Chicago said "The so-called melting pot is a fantasy. Some people never melt. We have to realize the American society is a society of pluralism. We're not inferior, we're just different."

Beatrice Liu, Bill's daughter -- now a college student -- said she realized she wasn't quite the same as other children growing up in South Bend, Indiana. "I was in the first grade and this little boy said "Can't you open your eyes a little wider?"

We hope this report will help us to do just that.

J.P. Lisack
J. P. Lisack

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Grateful acknowledgement and appreciation for providing data and materials is expressed to:

(Indiana)

The Indiana Commission for Higher Education
The Indiana Department of Education
The Indiana State Board of Health
The Indiana State Conference of Branches, National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
The School of Business, Indiana University

(National)

The American Council on Education
The College Board (both National and Midwestern Offices)
The Education Commission of the States
The Educational Testing Service
The Institute for Educational Leadership
The National Alliance of Business
The National Council of LA RAZA
The U.S. Bureau of the Census
The U.S. Department of Labor

Special Thanks

To Dr. Solomon Arbeiter of The College Board
To Dr. Harold Hodgkinson, senior fellow at the American Council on Education, who said, among other things, "It literally costs you about seven times as much to have somebody at the state pen as it does to have somebody at Penn State" for their leadership in this time of transition and their foresight in contributing to planning for the future.

Also to Ms. Natala K. Wickstrom, Director, Purdue Financial Aids Office.

and to

Lilly Endowment, Inc. for the partial funding of this study.

Finally, many thanks to Ms. Beverly Sloniger for her proficiency on the word processor and construction of tables.

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0. INTRODUCTION AND SUMMARY

A. Introduction

The population changes already well under way in the United States and Indiana will have profound effects on the total educational system, Kindergarten through the University level, as well as on the economy. Dr. Harold Hodgkinson has made the following points about the profile of today's and tomorrow's students:*

There are now more children coming to school from poverty-level households, from single-parent households (White, Black and Hispanic), more with unmarried parents, more with teen-age mothers, and fewer children entering the first grade having participated in Head Start or similar programs, even when eligible. There are more Minority children entering school now, and consequently more children with limited English speaking, reading, and writing ability in the classroom.

There are now many more "latch-key" children, and children from blended families resulting from divorce and remarriage. The population of White middle-class children is increasing throughout the educational system. The U.S Black population is projected to rise from 26.5 million today to 44 million by the year 2020. Hispanics will increase from 14.7 million today to around 47 million by 2020, due to higher birth rates and immigration.

As our nation's population grows from 238 million to about 260 million people by 2020, almost all of the increase will be in Non-White groups, as the White birth rate is not high enough to maintain the current population level. (It takes 2.1 children to achieve a balance between births and deaths, and the White birth rate is only 1.7.)

While long range figures are difficult to forecast, it is clear that during the 1980s the number of Asian Americans in the United States will increase from 3.5 million to almost 6 million. How this increase will affect our education system is unknown.

Although the number (and percentage) of Minorities graduating from high school showed some heartening increases during the 1970s, it now appears that the percentage of Minority high school graduates who go on to college is decreasing, at least for Black and Hispanic groups.

At the moment, many leaders in higher education levels seem to exhibit a general attitude of indifference to these important population trends.

It might be well to remember that high school graduates of the year 2000 are already three years old. Will they be ready to enter a work force which requires a sound educational foundation to meet changing job needs; will they be ready to participate successfully in higher and/or continuing education?

---

* Harold L. Hodgkinson, *All One System: Demographics of Education, Kindergarten through Graduate School*. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc., 1985.

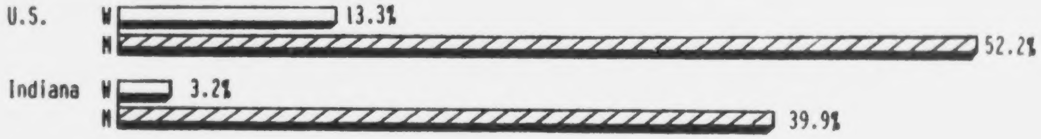
B. Summary Comparisons: U.S., Indiana & Selected Counties

Major ethnic groups (especially Whites, Blacks and Hispanics) in the U.S., Indiana and 22 selected Indiana Counties* differ markedly in terms of population statistics, educational trends, academic preparation, socio-economic characteristics, and employment trends. These differences have had and will continue to have major implications for the societal and economic structure and health of the U.S.. Indiana and the selected counties.

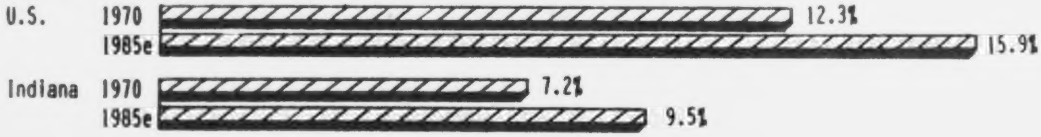
(1) Population Trends

In Indiana and the U.S. in general the average age of the White population is increasing as the "baby boom" population ages and a decreasing number of births occur. The situation is reversed, however, for (non-White) Minorities, in which case an increasing proportion of the population are younger people because of much higher birth and/or immigration rates. Thus, between 1970 and (estimated) 1985, the number of U.S. Minorities increased from 25.1 million to 38.2 million (52% increase) while the number of Whites increased from 178.1 million to 201.7 million (only 13%). In Indiana, the number of Minorities increased from 373,300 to 522,400 (40% increase), while the number of Whites increased from 4,820,300 to 4,976,600 (only 3%). The difference is more marked for the 22 high-Minority Indiana counties.

Percent Growth: 1970 to 1985e:

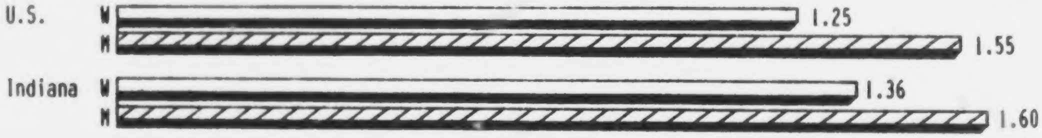


Minority Representation: 1970 & 1985e:

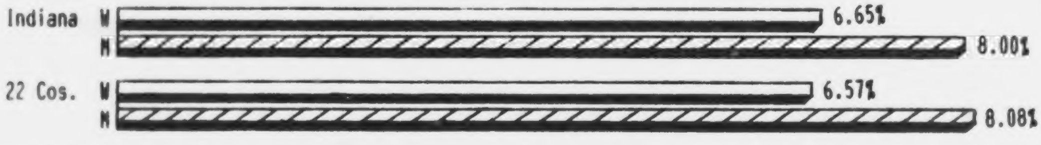


A major reason for increasing Minority representation within the population is the higher birth rates for (non-White) Minorities than for Whites.

Children Per Woman 15-44 Years Old: 1980



Births as Percent of Women 15-44 Years Old: 1979-81



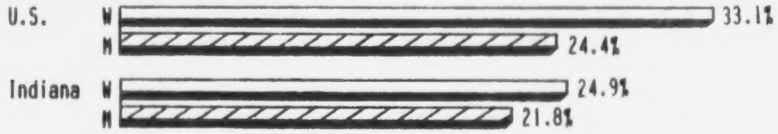
W ☐ Whites M ▨ Minorities (Non-Whites)

* *Of Indiana's 92 counties, 22 contain at least 1000 Minorities or 96.5 percent of all Indiana Minorities. However, almost two-thirds of these Minorities are contained in Marion and Lake Counties with an additional 11.7 percent contained in Allen and St. Joseph Counties.*

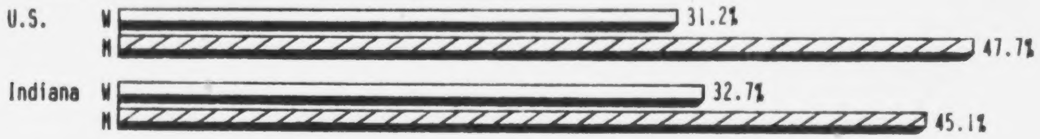
(2) Education Trends

The increasing representation of ethnic-minorities will be increasingly reflected in the educational levels attained by U.S. and Indiana citizens because of Minoriites' lower attained education than Whites'. These numbers are reflected and extended in the continuing tendency for Minorities in general (except Asian Americans) to not pursue higher education. Moreover, Minorities also have much higher dropout rates from high school.

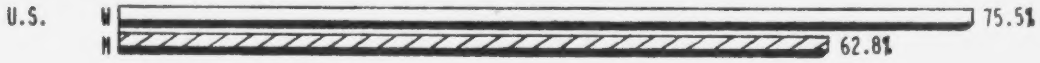
Percent of Adults with 1 Year College: 1980



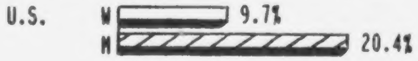
Percent of Adults Not Completing High School: 1980



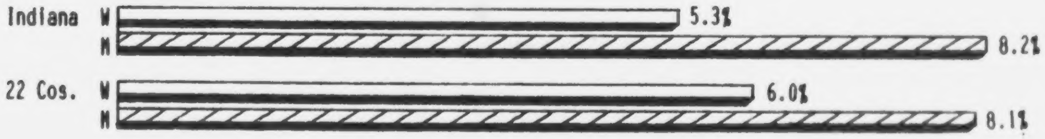
Percent of Adults 18-19 Who Are High-School Graduates: 1984



Percent of Adults 18-19 Still Enrolled in School (Pre-College): 1984

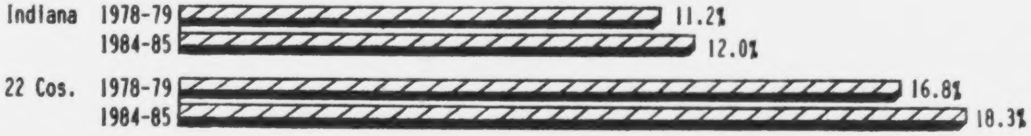


Percent of Students Withdrawing from Grades 7-12: 1984-85

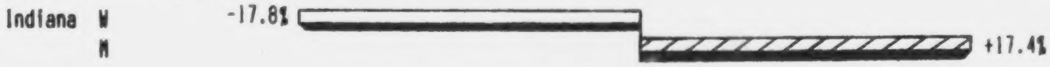


These educational characteristics are especially important for the pool of potential students for higher education because the number of Whites in the 12th grade in Indiana is projected to decrease from 61,500 in 1984 to 50,500 in 2004, while the number of Minorities is projected to increase from 7,200 to 8,400.

Minority Percent Representation in Grades 7-12: 1978-79 & 1984-85

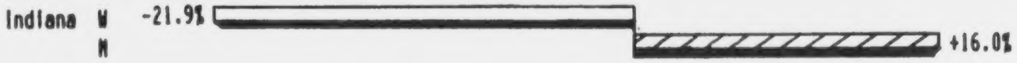


Percent Projected Change in Number of 12th Graders: 1984-2004

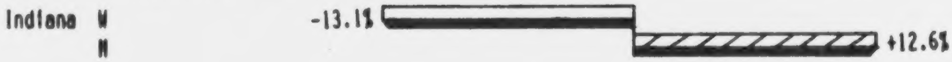


W ☐ Whites   M ▨ Minorities (Non-Whites)

Percent Projected Change in Number of 8th Graders: 1984-2004

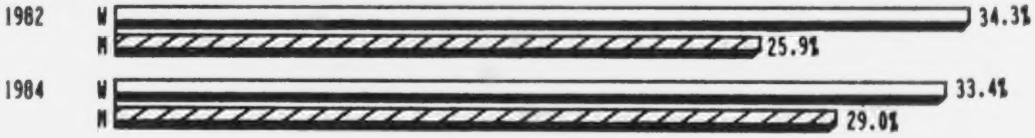


Percent Projected Change in Number of 1st Graders: 1984-2004

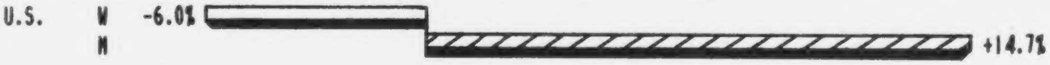


In addition, institutions of higher education will have to increasingly compete with other organizations, such as business/industry and the military, for their qualified students from this increasingly Minority-represented pool, although Minorities have been less likely to enroll in higher education. This is because the number of White U.S. high- school graduates is projected to decline, while Minorities increase. It will thus become more difficult to recruit Indiana higher education's (current) 35,000 beginning students from recent high-school graduates when the number of high school graduates declines from 64,900 in 1985 to approximately 55,700 in 2004 (a decrease of 14%). However, a growing source for new students will probably be the undereducated adult workforce, some of which may enroll only in courses, rather than degree programs.

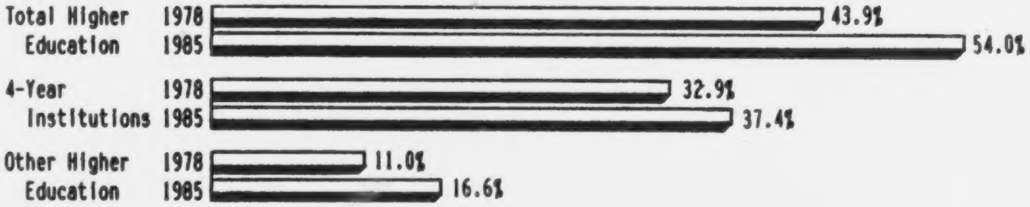
Percent of U.S. 20-21 Year Olds Enrolled in College:



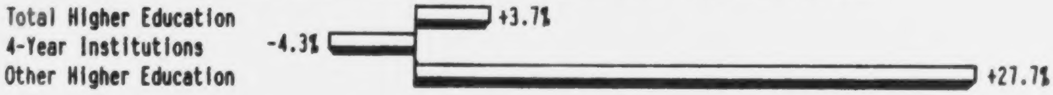
Percent Change in U.S. 20-21 Year-Old College Enrollment: 1982 to 1984



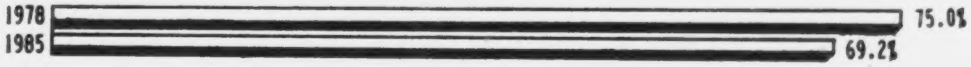
Percent of Indiana H.S. Graduates Enrolled in Higher Education:



Percent Change in Indiana Higher Education Enrollment of H.S. Graduates: 1978 to 1985



Percent of Indiana (H.S. Graduate) Higher Educ. Enrollment Being in 4-Year Institutions

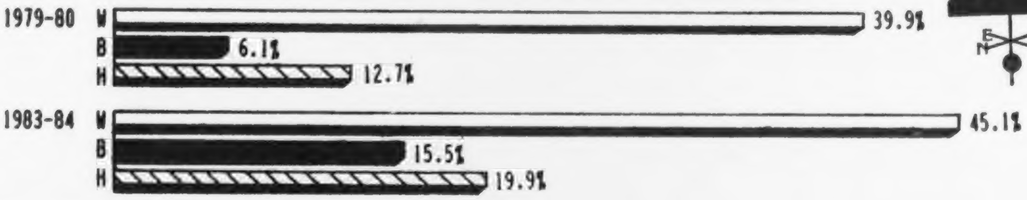


W ▭ *Whites* M ▨ *Minorities (Non-Whites)*

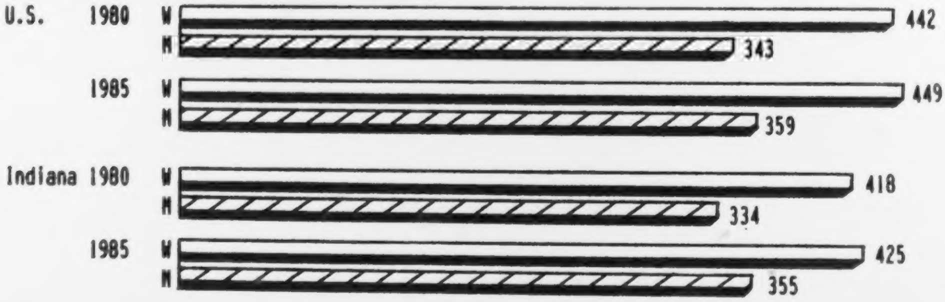
(3) Student Academic Preparation

A major hindrance to increasing the educational level of the U.S. and Indiana citizenry is the low level of academic preparation of even graduating high school students, especially of Minorities. Although Minority groups have been making progress in improving their academic proficiency, they are still well below Whites in proficiencies necessary for a quality higher education. For example, the reading proficiency levels of U.S. Blacks and Hispanics are three years below those of Whites.

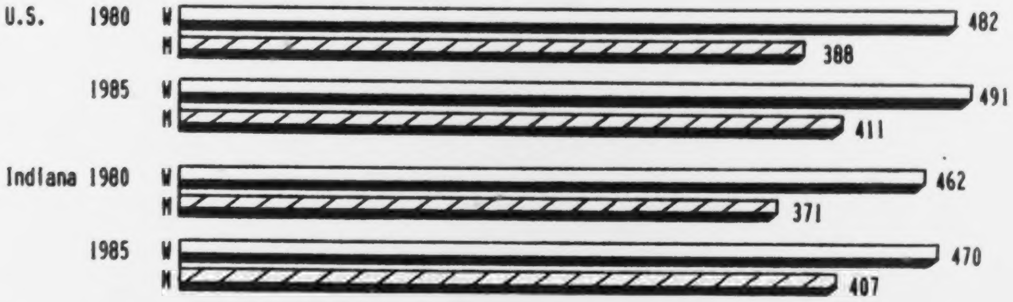
Percent of 17-Year-Old Students with "Adept" Reading Proficiency (College-Ready):



Average Scholastic Aptitude Test-Verbal Scores:

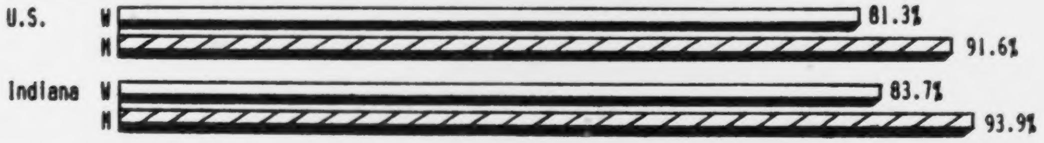


Average Scholastic Aptitude Test-Math Scores:



College-bound seniors themselves recognize and express their need for educational and career counseling and special help in a variety of academic skills. Minorities, especially, plan to seek help in math, study, writing and reading skills.

Percent of Students Planning to Request Special Help in College: 1985

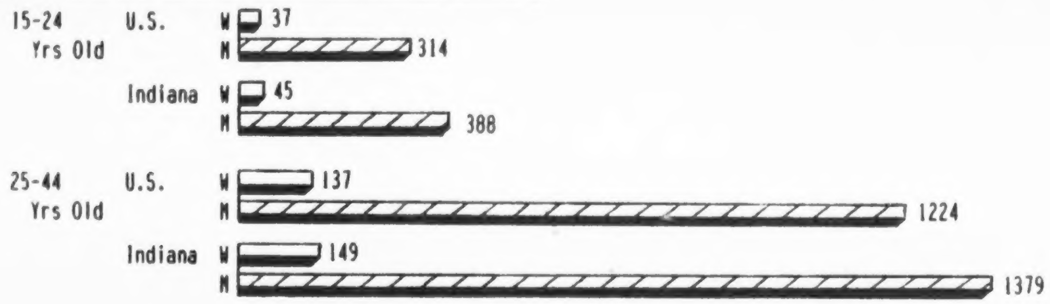


W ▭ Whites B ■ Blacks H ▧ Hispanics M ▨ Minorities (Non-Whites)

(4) Socio-Economic Trends

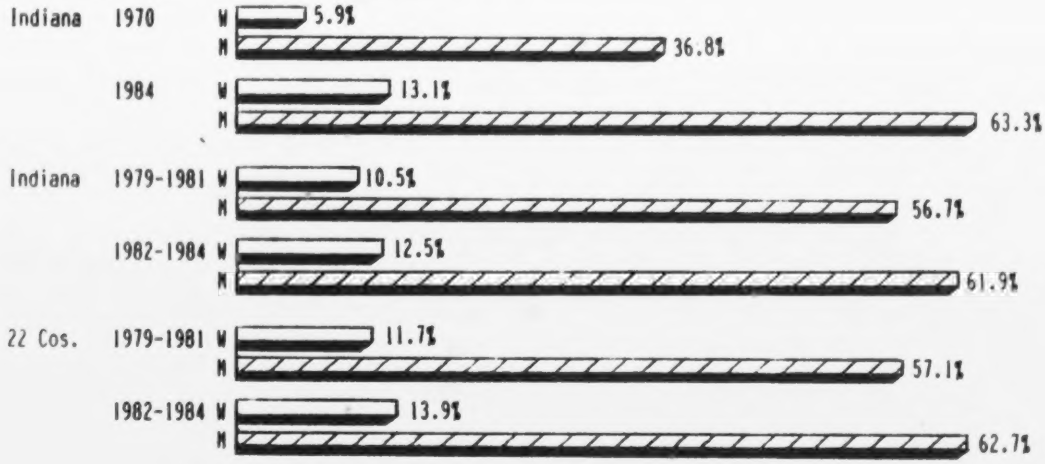
The increasing representation of Minorities is also important for the socio-economic structure within the U.S. and Indiana. Illegitimate birth rates have been much higher for all Minority groups except Asian Americans than for Whites. Moreover, with Whites and Blacks, rates are higher in Indiana than in the U.S. in general.

Number of Children per 1000 Never-Married Women: 1980



Illegitimate-birth rates have been increasing in Indiana since at least 1970 for both Whites and Non-Whites. While the rate for Non-Whites has almost doubled, that for Whites has more than doubled. However, the Non-White rate is still almost five times higher than the White rate.

Illegitimate Births as Percent of Live Births:



These illegitimacy rates have major implications for the family structure. For example, teenage pregnancy generally leads to prematurity of birth, which leads to low birth weight, increasing chances of major health problems and indicating possible major learning difficulties for the child. These types of children have been increasingly entering our school systems.

Between 1980 and 1984, the number of U.S. households increased by seven percent to 86 million, while the U.S. population increased only 4.2 percent. The number of Indiana households increased more than three percent to two million, although the population barely grew (0.1%). A major reason for these discrepancies is an increase in the number of female-headed households. Also,

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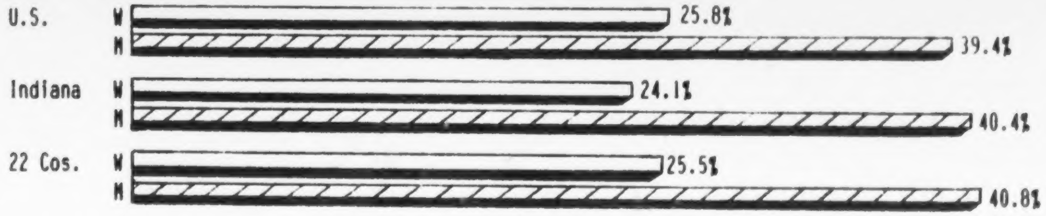
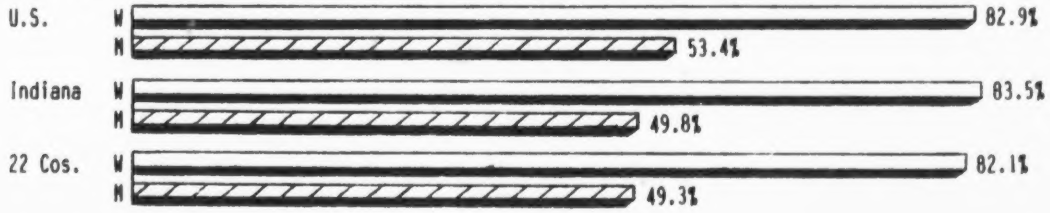
W ▭ *Whites* M ▨ *Minorities (Non-Whites)*

teenage mothers have been forming an increasing proportion of the larger family structure. Female-headed households are especially prevalent among Blacks (almost half) and impact a large proportion of minor children in the U.S. and in Indiana.

Percent of Households Headed by Women: 1980

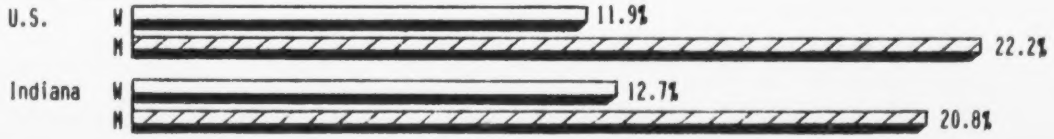


Percent of Persons under 18 Living with Two Parents: 1980



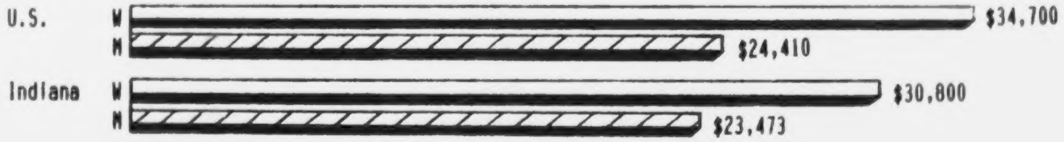
The family and household sizes for Minorities also tend to be larger than those for Whites.

Percent of Households with More Than 4 Persons: 1980

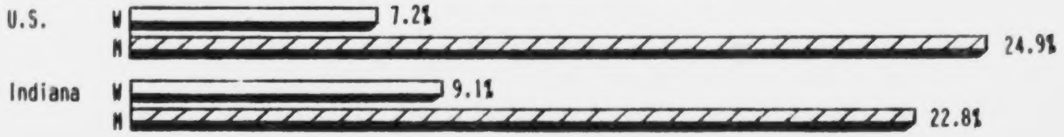


The educational and family-characteristics differences among ethnic groups have serious implications for the financial well-being of their members. The median family income of Minorities, especially Blacks, is much lower than that of Whites, who also have smaller families to support. The discrepancy is especially marked with college-bound students, in which case the median parental income for Minority students is only slightly more than two-thirds that for White students.

Median Parental Income of College-Bound Students: 1985

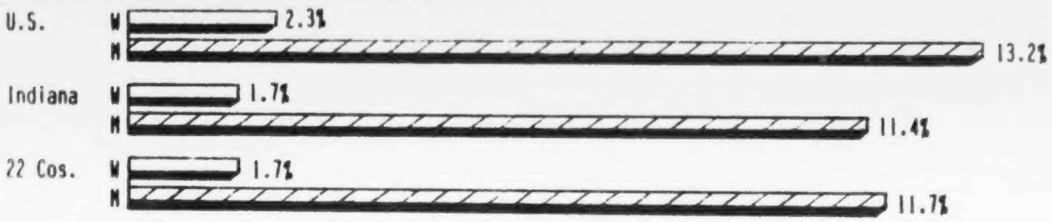


Percent of College-Bound Students with Parental Income < $12,000: 1985



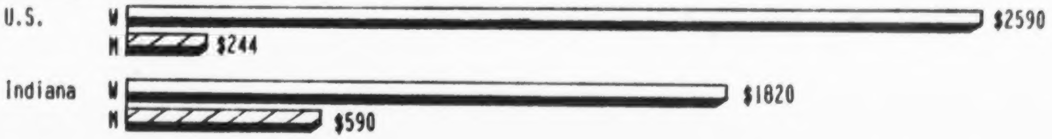
W ▭ Whites   M ▨ Minorities (Non-Whites)

Percent of Families Receiving Public Assistance: 1979



The lower Minority incomes are paralleled by parental contributions to students' higher education, although ethnic-group differences are even more pronounced. Because of their low family incomes, Minority families are less able to contribute to their children's continued education than are Whites.

Median Parental Contribution for College-Bound Students: 1985

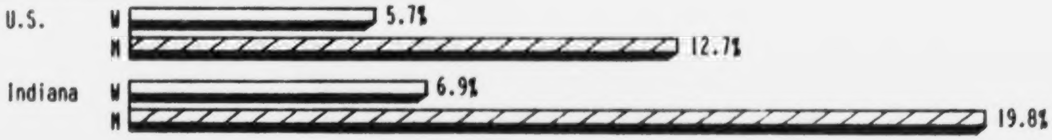


Moreover, students from poorer families are less likely to perceive the feasibility or benefit in securing a loan for such education, especially if it also means that they can no longer contribute themselves directly to their immediate family financial needs.

(5) Employment Trends

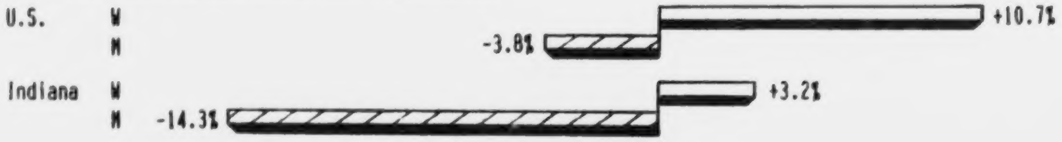
Because of Minority persons' lower levels of education, they tend to be employed in those occupations and industries which have higher unemployment rates. Thus, compared with the unemployment rates for Whites, those for Blacks are almost three times higher and those for Hispanics, almost twice.

Unemployment Rates of Adults Over 19: 1984



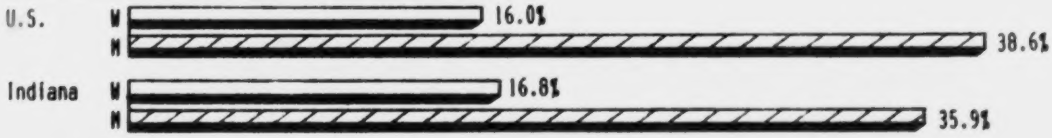
Moreover, while employment of Whites increased between 1980 and 1984, employment of Minorities actually declined, both Nationally and in Indiana.

Employment Change of Adults Over 19: 1980 to 1984



The rates are especially high for teenagers, who have even less education.

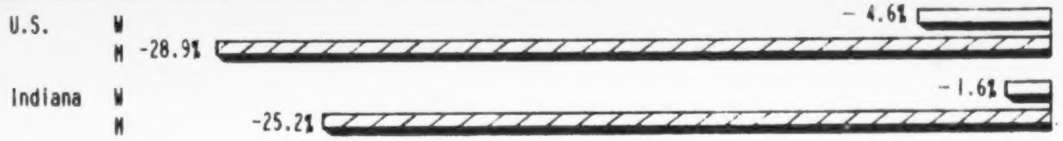
Unemployment Rates of Teenagers 16 through 19: 1984



W ▭ Whites M ▨ Minorities (Non-Whites)

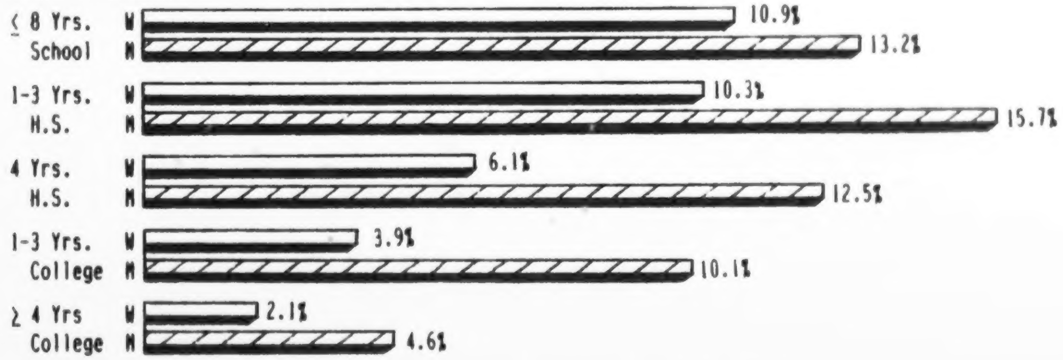
In contrast with adults, employment of White and Minority teenagers declined between 1980 and 1984, Nationally and in Indiana.

Employment Change of Teenagers 16 through 19: 1980 to 1984



Although unemployment rates are highly related to worker educational level, at each level, Minorities still have higher rates than do Whites.

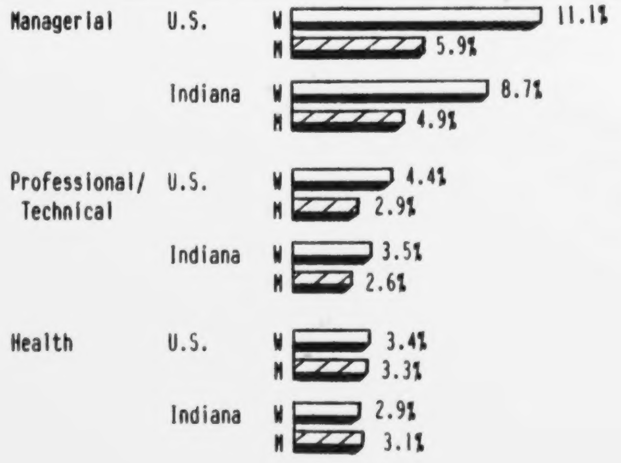
Unemployment Rates of U.S. Adults 25 through 64 Years Old: 1985



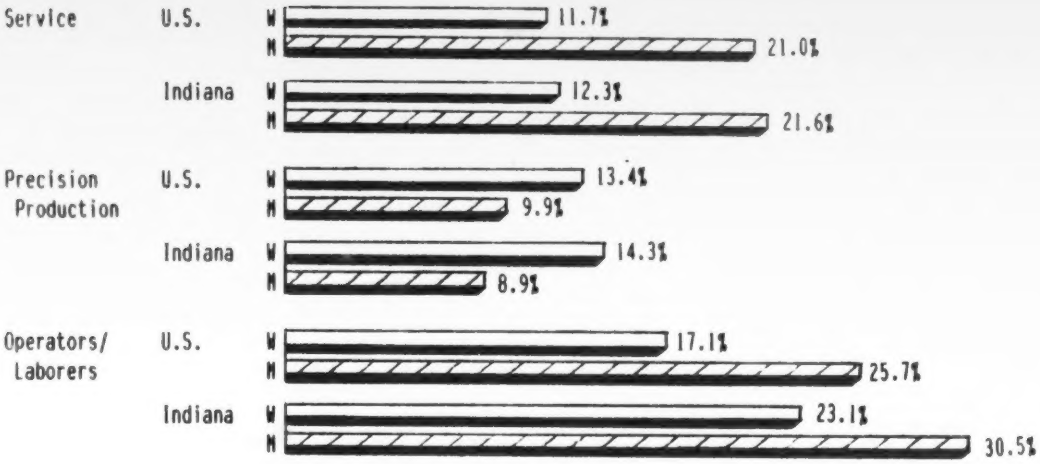
At the college-education levels, Minorities' college degrees tend more to be in nontechnical areas -- which have higher unemployment rates -- than do those of Whites.

To a large extent because of their lower educational levels, Minority persons are under-represented in managerial and professional occupations (e.g., engineers and scientists) but over-represented in lower-level occupations (e.g., equipment operators and laborers).

Percent Employment Distribution of Adults in Selected Occupations: 1980

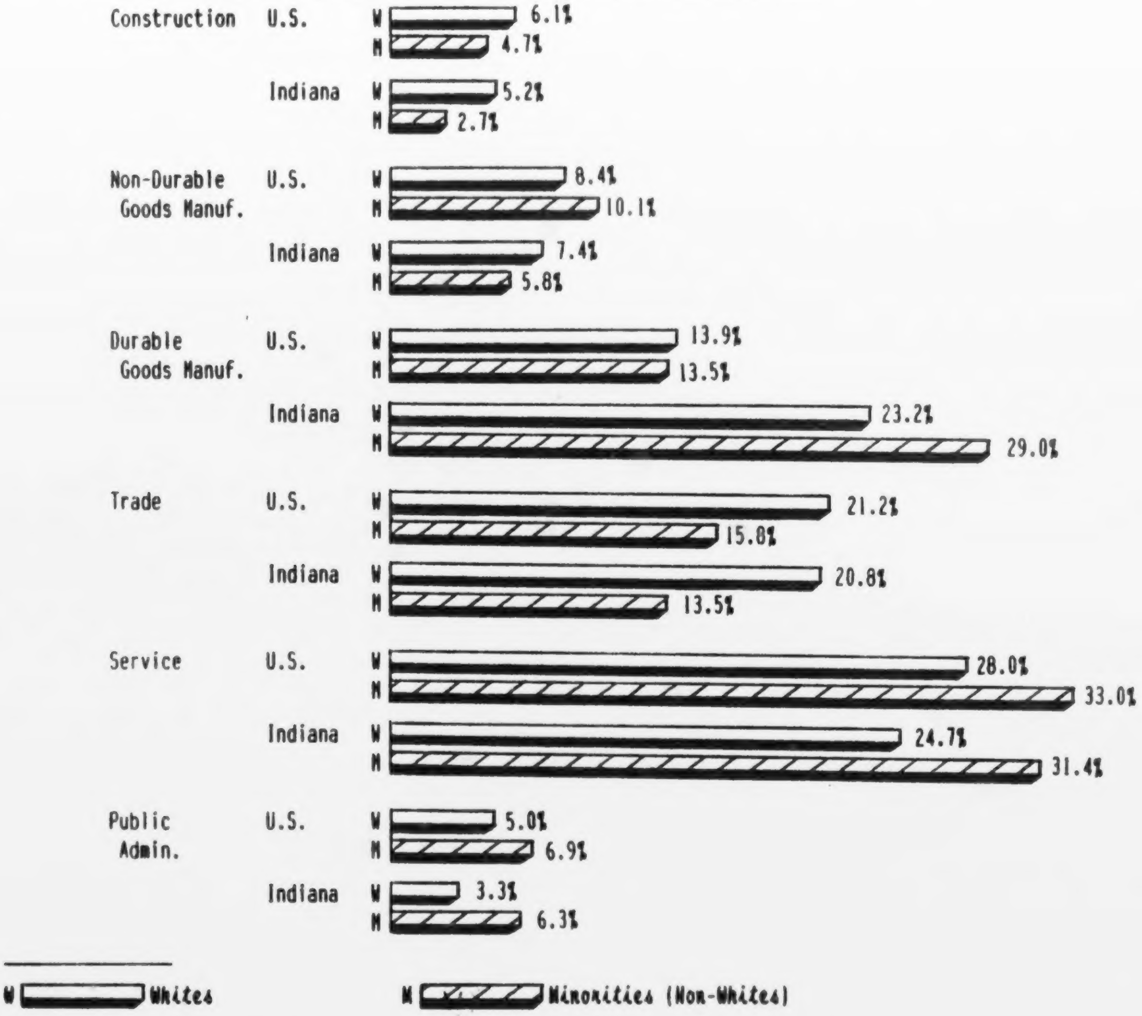


W ▭ *Whites*   M ▨ *Minorities (Non-Whites)*

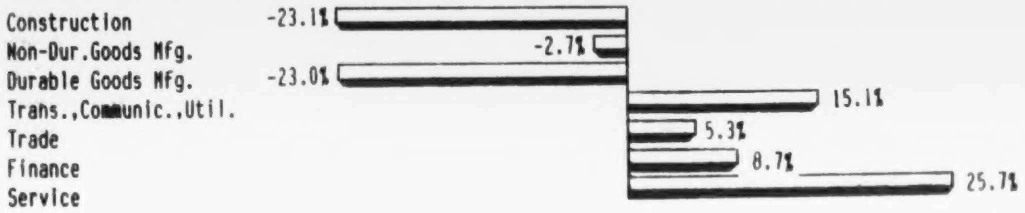


The occupations and industries in which Minorities are over-represented are the very ones which are displaced by robots and automation and which require retraining and upgrade training as high-tech modernization increasingly occurs.

Percent Employment Distribution of Adults in Selected Industries: 1980



Percent Change in Employment Distribution of Indiana Adults in Selected Industries: 1979 to 1986



Accordingly, it is critical for workers to have a fundamentally sound educational base, upon which necessary training or retraining can build.

THE BOTTOM LINE:

The rapid increase in minorities in our population is here to stay. We need to make a major commitment to see that all citizens, young and old have the opportunity to develop to and perform at the highest levels possible. There will be barriers of color, language, and culture, as the proportions and numbers of American Blacks, Hispanics and Asian Americans grow, and they are joined by others from foreign lands. We must not lower the standards but must increase the effort; to do so will be to the direct benefit of all Americans. Their numbers are already so large that if they do not succeed, all of us will have diminished futures.

That is the reality that requires a new commitment.

1. POPULATION

A. Census

(1) General Situation

Since the First World War, the composition of the United States and Indiana populations has been increasingly changing, most markedly since 1960. Most important is the fact that the Minority populations are becoming much larger proportions of the total population (see Table 1-A1), accentuating ethnic and cultural diversity.

TABLE 1-A1

U.S. PROJECTED POPULATION DISTRIBUTION BY RACE: 1982-2005
(MILLIONS)

Year	Total Number (100%)	White[1/]		Minority					
				Total		Black[2/]		Other Minority[3/]	
		Number	Percent ▼	Number	Percent ▲	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1982	232.1	198.5	85.5%	34.0	14.5%	27.7	11.9%	6.3	2.7%
1984	237.2	201.1	84.8	36.1	15.2	28.6	12.1	7.5	3.2
1986	242.7	203.6	83.9	39.1	16.1	29.5	12.2	9.6	4.0
1988	248.4	205.8	82.9	42.6	17.1	30.5	12.3	12.1	4.9
1990	254.1	207.8	81.8	46.3	18.2	31.4	12.4	14.9	5.9
1992	259.8	209.5	80.6	50.3	19.4	32.3	12.4	18.0	6.9
1994	265.4	210.9	79.5	54.5	20.5	33.2	12.5	21.3	8.0
1996	270.9	212.0	78.3	58.9	21.7	34.1	12.6	24.8	9.2
1998	276.2	212.9	77.1	63.3	22.9	34.9	12.6	28.4	10.3
2000	281.6	213.5	75.8	68.1	24.2	35.8	12.7	32.3	11.5
2005	295.3	214.5	72.6	80.8	27.4	37.9	12.8	42.9	14.5

[1/] *Low "assumption series": Low birth rate, high life expectancy, & low net immigration.*

[2/] *Middle "assumption series": Medium birth rate, life expectancy, & net immigration.*

[3/] *Estimated to best match the current and projected situation: Total (High series) minus Whites (Low series) minus Blacks (Middle series)*

NOTE: Approximately 60% of Spanish persons identify their race as "White".

SOURCE: Bureau of the Census, Projections of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1983 to 2080 (Current Population Reports, Population Estimates and Projections, Series P-25, No. 952). U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C., May 1984.

NOTE: The U.S. Bureau of the Census designates persons who identify themselves as being of Spanish-Origin but who may identify their race as White, Black, or other races (excludes "Spanish"). In contrast, the ethnic group "Hispanic", as designated in census data tables in this report to preserve data consistency, refers to persons of Spanish origin who do not identify their race as being White, Black, Native American, or Asian/Pacific Islander. These Hispanics represent 38 percent of the U.S. Spanish-Origin group and 35 percent of Indiana's Spanish-Origin group and tend to differ more extensively from Whites than do persons of Spanish-Origin in general.

Although Blacks have constituted the largest Minority group in the nation and in Indiana and will continue to do so into the near future, the greatest impact will continue to be from the high levels of birthing and/or immigration of Hispanics and Asians, which has been termed "the fourth Wave" by the Urban Institute.[1] The Institute predicts that this may be the largest wave of immigration to ever reach U.S. cities. Hispanics are already having an increasingly significant economic and political impact.

The U.S. Spanish population has been growing much faster than the total population and, as of March 1985, accounts for one of every 14 persons.[2] This reflects a 16 percent increase since the 1980 census (compared to just a 2.5% gain for the non-Spanish population) or 2.3 million more persons of Spanish origin. At the Spanish population's rate of increase, it could become the largest national ethnic-minority group by the year 2000[3] (also see Table 1-A1 on previous page).

The sharp increase in the Spanish population is being rivaled by a faster rate of increase in the Asian population, which increased 141 percent between 1970 and 1980 to total 5.1 million.[4] At this rate, they will reach 10 million by the year 2000 but would still be the third largest ethnic-minority group (behind Blacks and Hispanics).

According to a recently completed study, the ethnic Minorities have been concentrating in inner cities, while Whites have been moving to the suburbs out of the major cities.[5] This concentration is especially important today because manufacturing industries are tending to also move out of the cities proper into the suburbs.[6]

(2) Population Distribution and Change

In 1980, the total U.S. population numbered almost 227 million, of which over 26 million (12%) were Black, almost 6 million were Hispanic, and almost 4 million, Asian and Pacific Islander. The proportion of Minorities is growing faster than that of Whites throughout the Nation.

The total population of the North Central U.S. Region in 1980 numbered almost 59 million (one-fourth of the U.S. total), of which 11 percent were from Minority ethnic groups, primarily Blacks. This region contained a smaller proportion of Minority residents than the U.S., which was 17 percent Minority.

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[1] John S. Lang & Jeannye Thornton, "The Disappearing Border." U.S. News & World Report, Aug. 19, 1985, pp. 30-31.

[2] AP release, "Hispanic Population Growing Fast." USA Today, Thursday, Jan. 30, 1986, p. 3A.

[3] Harold L. Hodgkinson, "Demographics and the Economy: Understanding a Changing Marketplace." The Admissions Strategist, Jan. 1985.

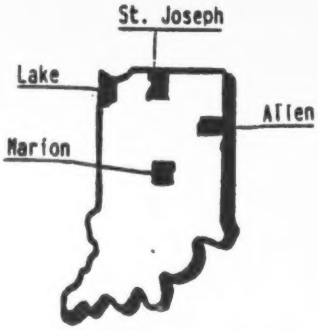
[4] Paul Clancy, "141% Growth for Asians in the USA." USA TODAY, Thursday, Oct. 10, 1985; "3" Major Roadblocks," USA Today, Friday, Feb. 7, 1986, pp. 1A, 2A.

[5] Don Tschirhart & Mary Kaull, "Study: Whites Continue Flight to the Suburbs." USA Today, Tues., April 8, 1986. (Study by Morton D. Winsberg, Florida State University Geographer)

[6] National Alliance of Business, Employment Policies: Looking to the Year 2000. Washington, D.C., 1986. See Attachment VIII.

Indiana's total population in 1980 numbered approximately 5,490,200 (9.3% of the North Central Region total). Indiana Minority-population was 9 percent, compared to 11 percent for the region and 17 percent for the U.S. Indiana's Minorities were primarily Blacks, with 7.6 percent of the State's total population.

Indiana's Minority population is concentrated in a few counties. Nearly 314,000 of the 486,000 Minorities in Indiana (64.6%) lived in Marion and Lake Counties in 1980. Marion County had the largest county Minority population (164,000), of which more than 20 percent were Black. However, Lake County contains a larger percent concentration of Minorities (28.6%), of which 126,000 were Blacks and nearly 21,000 were Hispanic (the highest number of Hispanics in the State). More than 10 percent of the populations of Allen and St. Joseph Counties are made up of Minorities. Also of significance, the proportion and numbers of Whites is decreasing, while the proportion and numbers of Minorities is growing throughout the State.



Altogether, 22 of the 92 counties in Indiana had more than 1,000 Minority members in 1980. Data showing population distributions by ethnic group in 1980 for the U.S., the North Central Region, Indiana, and each of these 22 counties, are presented in Table 1-A2.

Generally, the counties having the largest total populations are experiencing an actual decrease in the numbers of White persons and an increase in Minoirities. Population change comparisons by ethnic groups are shown in Table 1-A3. Minority population percentage increases for the 22 counties from 1970 to 1980 are illustrated in Map 1-A1, and the percent of county populations made up of Minorities in 1980 are illustrated in Map 1-A2.

TABLE 1-A2

1980 POPULATION BY ETHNIC GROUP FOR U.S., NO. CENTRAL REGION, INDIANA AND 22 SELECTED COUNTIES

(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

Geo-graphical Area	Total Number (100%)	White		Total[1]		Black		Minority Hispanic[2]		Native Amer.		Asian/Pac Isl.	
		Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
U.S.	226,729.6	189,035.0	83.37%	37,694.6	16.63%	26,482.3	11.68%	5,503.7	2.43%	1,534.3	.68%	3,910.3	1.72%
No. Central Region	58,865.7	52,283.2	88.82%	6,582.5	11.18%	5,332.9	9.06%	502.5	.85%	271.2	.46%	435.4	.74%
Indiana	5,490.2	5,004.4	91.15%	485.8	8.85%	414.8	7.55%	42.7	.78%	7.8	.14%	23.4	.43%
Marion Co.	765.2	601.1	78.55%	164.1	21.45%	155.3	20.30%	3.5	.45%	1.1	.14%	4.3	.56%
Lake	523.0	373.4	71.41%	149.5	28.59%	126.1	24.10%	20.7	3.97%	.7	.13%	2.1	.40%
Allen	294.3	262.9	89.32%	31.4	10.68%	26.4	8.97%	3.2	1.09%	.5	.18%	1.3	.44%
St. Joseph	241.6	216.1	89.43%	25.5	10.57%	21.6	8.94%	2.3	.93%	.5	.21%	1.2	.49%
Vanderburgh	167.5	154.3	92.13%	13.2	7.87%	11.9	7.12%	.4	.24%	.2	.11%	.7	.39%
Madison	139.3	128.9	92.52%	10.4	7.48%	9.7	6.93%	.3	.23%	.2	.11%	.3	.21%
LaPorte	108.6	98.9	91.04%	9.7	8.96%	8.7	7.97%	.5	.47%	.2	.18%	.4	.34%
Delaware	128.6	120.0	93.34%	8.6	6.66%	7.6	5.90%	.4	.34%	.2	.16%	.3	.26%
Vigo	112.4	104.8	93.25%	7.6	6.75%	6.2	5.49%	.6	.54%	.2	.17%	.6	.55%
Elkhart	137.3	130.0	94.64%	7.4	5.36%	5.8	4.20%	.9	.62%	.3	.19%	.5	.36%
Grant	80.9	74.6	92.15%	6.4	7.85%	5.3	6.50%	.7	.85%	.2	.20%	.2	.30%
Monroe	98.8	93.5	94.62%	5.3	5.38%	2.6	2.60%	1.5	1.49%	.1	.13%	1.1	1.15%
Howard	86.9	81.7	94.03%	5.2	5.97%	4.3	4.92%	.5	.52%	.2	.21%	.3	.31%
Clark	88.8	83.9	94.41%	5.0	5.59%	4.3	4.86%	.2	.25%	.1	.15%	.3	.34%
Tippecanoe	121.7	116.9	96.07%	4.8	3.93%	2.0	1.68%	.9	.73%	.2	.13%	1.7	1.40%
Wayne	76.1	71.7	94.27%	4.4	5.73%	3.9	5.07%	.2	.24%	.1	.16%	.2	.26%
Floyd	61.2	58.7	96.02%	2.4	3.98%	2.2	3.57%	.1	.17%	.0	.06%	.1	.18%
Porter	119.8	117.8	98.36%	2.0	1.64%	.3	.25%	1.0	.80%	.2	.14%	.6	.46%
Miami	39.8	37.9	95.14%	1.9	4.86%	1.0	2.73%	.3	.75%	.4	.95%	.2	.43%
Bartholomew	65.1	63.5	97.52%	1.6	2.48%	1.1	1.50%	.2	.37%	.1	.11%	.3	.50%
Johnson	77.2	75.9	98.28%	1.3	1.72%	.8	1.08%	.1	.19%	.1	.08%	.3	.37%
Hamilton	82.0	81.0	98.78%	1.0	1.22%	.4	.44%	.2	.19%	.1	.09%	.4	.50%
Total Selected 22 Indiana Co.	3,616.3	3,174.6	87.04%	468.7	12.96%	407.2	11.26%	36.6	1.07%	5.7	.16%	17.3	.48%
% Ethnic Group	65.87%	62.90%	--	96.48%	--	98.17%	--	90.52%	--	72.40%	--	73.81%	--
Total Non-Selected Indiana Co.	1,873.9	1,856.8	99.09%	17.1	.91%	7.6	.41%	4.0	.22%	2.2	.12%	6.1	.33%

[1] *Estimated as all Non-Whites.*

[2] *Estimated as Total - Whites - Blacks - Native Americans - Asian/Pac. Islanders - non-Spanish "Not Elsewhere Classified", i.e., Spanish people who do not identify themselves as any of the aforementioned races.*

SOURCE: *1980 U.S. Census Reports. See Appendix 1-A2.*

TABLE 1-A3

POPULATION CHANGE COMPARISONS BY ETHNIC GROUP FOR U.S., NO. CENTRAL REGION, INDIANA AND 22 SELECTED COUNTIES: 1970 TO 1980

(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

					MINORITY									
Geo-graphical Area	Total		White		Total Minority		Black		American Indian		Japan., Chin Filip.1/		Other2/	
	Number 1980	Percent Change*	Number 1980	Percent Change*	Number 1980	Percent Change*	Number 1980	Percent Change*	Number 1980	Percent Change*	Number 1980	Percent Change*	Number 1980	Percent Change*
U.S.	226,729.6	11.57%	189,035.0	6.13%	37,694.6	50.23%	26,482.3	17.49%	1,478.5	93.63%	2,310.4	70.30%	7,423.4	1620.99%
N. Central Region	58,865.7	4.07	52,283.1	1.13	6,582.5	35.28	5,332.9	16.87	269.2	86.58	202.1	87.56	778.3	1436.20
IN (Total)	5,490.2	5.71	5,004.4	3.82	485.8	30.13	414.8	16.04	7.7	132.44	10.0	84.69	53.4	756.30
Marion	765.2	-3.42	601.1	-8.27	164.1	19.80	155.3	15.48	1.1	86.71	2.1	80.50	5.7	509.76
Lake	523.0	-4.26	373.4	-13.53	149.5	30.75	126.1	12.53	.7	48.53	1.1	79.33	21.7	1587.64
Allen	294.3	4.95	262.9	1.08	31.4	54.30	26.4	36.78	.5	75.08	.5	21.60	4.1	921.41
St. Joseph	241.6	-1.40	216.1	-4.13	25.5	29.92	21.6	16.23	.5	74.39	.5	39.05	2.9	613.73
Vanderburgh	167.5	-.74	154.3	-2.44	13.2	24.53	11.9	16.10	.2	80.00	.2	112.90	.9	702.80
Madison	139.3	.64	128.9	-.97	10.4	25.94	9.7	20.26	.2	71.91	.1	21.51	.5	642.65
LaPorte	108.6	3.12	98.9	.94	9.7	32.21	8.7	23.09	.2	62.50	.2	102.67	.7	456.92
Delaware	128.6	-.49	120.0	-1.54	8.6	16.98	7.6	9.02	.2	106.86	.1	38.10	.6	293.71
Vigo	112.4	-1.87	104.8	-3.61	7.6	30.66	6.2	14.73	.2	161.76	.3	52.00	.9	483.75
Elkhart	137.3	8.54	130.0	6.77	7.4	53.18	5.8	31.08	.2	110.26	.2	36.23	1.2	655.84
Grant	80.9	-3.60	74.6	-5.77	6.4	32.27	5.3	16.67	.2	46.30	.1	40.00	.8	728.57
Monroe	98.8	16.42	93.5	13.30	5.3	125.89	2.6	78.84	.1	101.61	.7	66.67	1.9	348.82
Howard	86.9	4.44	81.7	2.96	5.2	35.27	4.3	19.63	.2	162.86	.1	103.23	.6	380.65
Clark	88.8	17.08	83.9	15.91	5.0	41.12	4.3	27.42	.1	176.09	.2	168.42	.4	1140.00
Tippecanoe	121.7	11.27	116.9	8.98	4.8	127.92	2.0	97.10	.2	61.70	1.1	86.88	1.5	278.82
Wayne	76.1	-3.86	71.7	-4.47	4.4	7.49	3.9	.55	.1	96.83	.1	28.72	.3	300.00
Floyd	61.2	9.97	58.7	9.88	2.4	12.38	2.2	3.66	.0	290.00	.1	231.58	.1	380.65
Porter	119.8	37.54	117.8	35.85	2.0	433.88	.3	86.88	.2	155.56	.3	231.46	1.2	2031.58
Miami	39.8	1.46	37.9	-.10	1.9	46.29	1.1	9.69	.4	143.23	.1	41.33	.4	260.40
Bartholomew	65.1	14.15	63.5	12.56	1.6	157.35	1.0	89.86	.1	392.86	.1	265.52	.5	560.00
Johnson	77.2	26.34	75.9	28.26	1.3	-31.90	.8	-54.58	.1	70.27	.2	162.30	.3	1411.11
Hamilton	82.0	50.42	81.0	49.67	1.0	152.39	.4	32.72	.1	45.65	.2	267.35	.4	1213.33
22 Sel. Co.	3,616.3	2.80	3,147.6	-.23	468.7	29.11	407.2	16.30	5.6	87.50	8.5	74.95	47.5	827.18
70 Non-Sel. Counties	1873.9	11.83	1,856.8	11.49	17.1	66.23	7.6	3.40	2.1	130.36	1.5	63.56	5.9	430.10

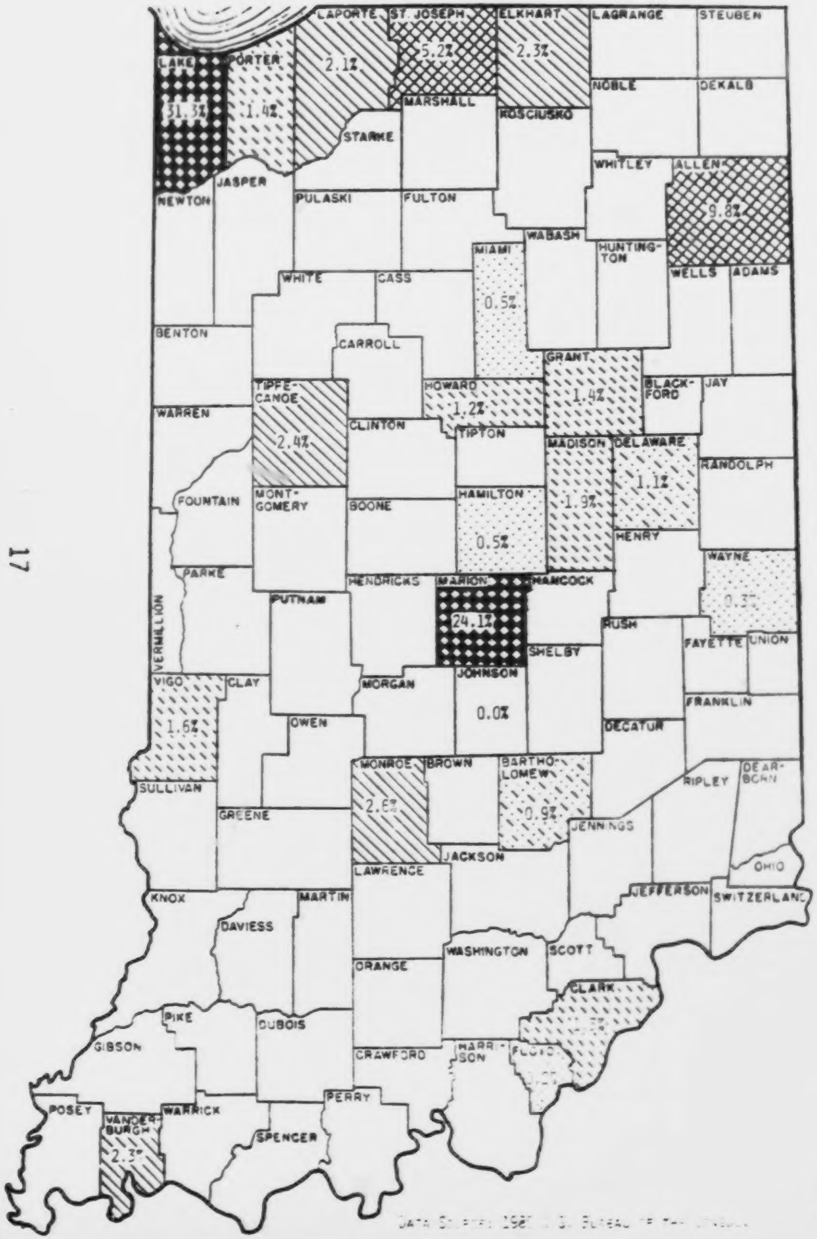
*Percent change between 1970 and 1980.

1/Japanese, Chinese and Filipino.
2/Mostly Hispanic.

SOURCE: 1970 and 1980 Census Reports. See Appendix 1-A3.

MAP 1-A1

PERCENT OF MINORITY POPULATION INCREASE (1970 TO 1980)
OCCURRING IN 22 HIGH MINORITY INDIANA COUNTIES

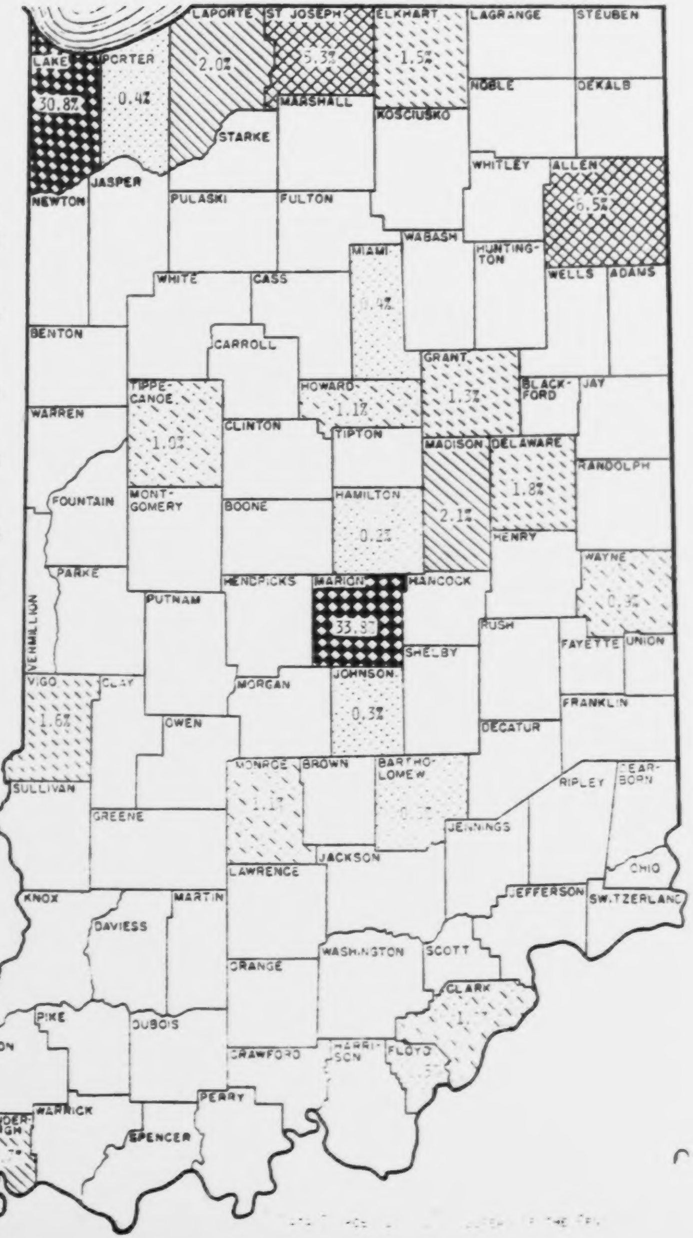


DATA SOURCE: 1980 U.S. BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

▨ 0.2% - 0.5%
▨ 0.6% - 1.1%
▨ 1.2% - 1.9%
▨ 2.0% - 4.9%
▨ 5.0% - 19.0%
■ 20.0% +

MAP 1-A2

PERCENT OF TOTAL MINORITY POPULATION
IN 22 SELECTED INDIANA COUNTIES: 1980



DATA SOURCE: 1980 U.S. BUREAU OF THE CENSUS

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NOTE: The rapid growth of Minorities is readily apparent when one realizes that, from 1970 to 1980:

in the United States, the White population grew only 6.1 percent, while the Minority population grew 50.2 percent, and

in Indiana, the White population grew only 3.8 percent, while the Minority population grew 30.1 percent.

From 1970 to 1980, Indiana's population grew 5.7 percent from 5,193,700 to 5,490,200 persons. The White population grew less than four percent (from 4,820,300 to 5,004,400) while all Minorities grew more than 30 percent (from 373,300 to 485,800). The highest growth-rate of Minorities was primarily of non-Black Minorities, with almost a 350 percent increase (from 15,900 to 71,000), compared to 16 percent growth for Blacks. Indiana's percentage population growth was higher than the No. Central Region for all racial groups except Blacks.

The disparity between White and Minority population change is accentuated when the four highest-population counties in Indiana are considered. The total populations of these four counties (Marion, Lake, Allen and St. Joseph) decreased 39,900 (-2.1%). However, while the White population decreased 119,100 (-7.6%), the Minority population increased 79,200 (27.2%). The greatest percentage increase of Minorities was for non-Blacks.

TABLE 1-A4

INDIANA POPULATION DISTRIBUTION BY RACE: 1930 TO 1985^{e}

(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

	Total Population (100%)	White		Black		Amer. Indian		Japanese & Chinese		Other Races*	
		Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Number	% Total
			▼		▲		▲		▲		▲
1985(Est.)	5,499.0	4,976.6	90.50%	425.6	7.74%	8.8	.16%	7.5	.14%	80.6	1.46%
1980....	5,490.2	5,004.4	91.15	414.8	7.55	7.7	.14	6.3	.12	57.0	1.04
1970....	5,193.7	4,820.3	92.81	357.5	6.88	3.9	.07	4.4	.09	7.6	.15
1960....	4,662.5	4,388.6	94.12	269.3	5.78	.9	.02	2.0	.04	1.7	.04
1950....	3,934.2	3,758.5	95.53	174.2	4.43	.4	.01	.8	.02	.3	.01
1940....	3,427.8	3,305.3	96.43	121.9	3.56	.2	.01	.2	.01	.1	.00
1930....	3,238.5	3,125.8	96.52	112.0	3.46	.3	.01	.3	.01	.1	.00

* *Includes mostly Hispanics, as well as Asians.*

SOURCE: *1980 Census of Population*, (PC80-1-B16), *Table 17, p. 26. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, August 1982; 1985 ethnic group data compiled by Office of Manpower Studies. See Appendix 1-A4.*

Indiana's total population increased from about 3.2 million in 1930 to almost 5.5 million in 1985 (an increase of about 70%) (see Table 1-A4). However, the proportion of Whites in the population decreased throughout this entire period (from 96.5% in 1930 to about 90.5% in 1985), while the percentage of Blacks more than doubled from 3.5% to 7.6%. There was an even greater percentage increase for all other Minority groups. *This trend* *is expected to continue into the future because the birth and fertility rates of Minority women are higher than for White women (not to mention Minority in-migration).*

TABLE 1-A5

INDIANA POPULATION CHANGES BY RACE: 1930 TO 1985e

					Minorities				
	Total		White		Black		American Indian	Japanese & Chinese	Other Races**
	Number	%* Change	Number	%* Change	Number	%* Change	Number	Number	Number
1985(Est)	5,499,000	.2%	4,976,564	- .6%	425,596	2.6%	8,751	7,529	80,558
1980....	5,490,224	5.7	5,004,394	3.8	414,785	16.0	7,682	6,347	57,016
1970....	5,193,669	11.4	4,820,324	9.8	357,464	32.8	3,887	4,394	7,600
1960....	4,662,498	18.5	4,388,554	16.8	269,275	54.6	948	2,045	1,676
1950....	3,934,224	14.8	3,758,512	13.7	174,168	42.9	438	814	292
1940....	3,427,796	5.8	3,305,323	5.7	121,916	8.9	223	237	97
1930....	3,238,503	-	3,125,778	-	111,982	-	285	350	77
% Change 1930 to 1985		69.8%	--	59.2%	--	280.1%	2970.5%	2051.1%	104,520.8%

* *Percent change from previous data, 10 years earlier, except for 1980-85 change.*
** *Primarily Hispanic & Southeast Asian immigrants' families.*

SOURCE: *1980 Census of Population*, (PC80-1-B16), Table 17, p. 26. Bureau of the Census, U.S. Dept. of Commerce, August 1982. See Appendix 1-A5.

Although the total population of Indiana increased nearly 70 percent from 1930 to 1985 (see Table 1-A5), the White population grew only about 59 percent, while significant increases occurred in the Minority groups (363%). Generally speaking, the rates of growth have been slowing since 1960, except for the "Other Races" group (largely made up of Hispanics), which continue to grow at an accelerated rate. *It now appears that the White population may have actually decreased between 1980 and 1985, while the Minority populations continue to grow.*

(3) Population by Age

Another important demographic change is occurring with regard to the distribution of population by age (see Table 1-A6). For example, projecting Indiana's population from 1980 to the year 2000, the number of younger people (ages 0 to 14) will probably decline by 6 percent, the 15 to 19 year group will drop some 17 percent, and the number of 20 to 24-year group will drop more than 15 percent. Meanwhile the 25 to 64 age group may grow some 18 percent, and those over 65 will also increase significantly. (The post-WWII baby boomers are now beginning to move into their early 40s.)

TABLE 1-A6

POPULATION PROJECTION SUMMARY FOR INDIANA
BY AGE STRUCTURE: 1980-2000

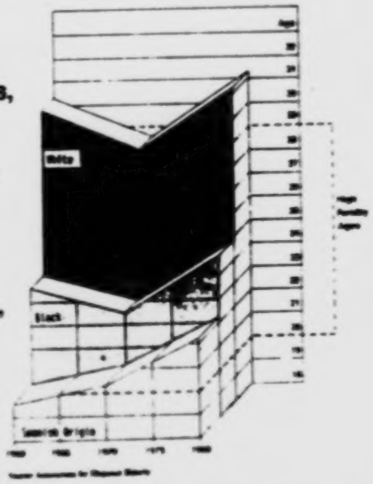
AGE GROUPS	1980	2000	NUMBER CHANGE	PERCENT CHANGE
0-4	418,770	392,750	-26,020	- 6.2%
5-14	887,880	830,940	-56,940	- 6.4%
15-19	529,630	440,050	-89,580	-16.9%
20-24	518,660	439,020	-79,640	-15.4%
25-64	2,549,930	3,005,030	455,100	17.8%
65+	585,400	747,710	162,310	27.7%
TOTAL	5,490,200	5,855,500	365,300	6.7%

* Reasons for changes: (1) Declining birth, (2) Post World War II baby boom, and (3) Net out-migration.

SOURCE: Indiana University, Division of Research, School of Business--and the Indiana State Board of Health. Indiana County Population projections, 1985-2020. Published in 1983.

MEDIAN	AGE
1980	28.7
1985	30.4
1990	31.9
1995	33.3
2000	34.7

Of great significance to educational planners -- and the future workforce -- is the fact that the above projections show a continuing decline of younger people (age 24 and below) and an increase of older people. This phenomenon is reflected in the steady rise of the median age of the population (at right).



Older Whites, Younger Minorities: Median Age of White, Black, and Spanish Origin Populations, 1960-1980

The changing ethnic diversity of U.S. and Indiana populations is especially prevalent among young people and the retirement-age population. In these cases a higher proportion of young people and a lower proportion of retirement-age persons are from ethnic-minority groups.[1,2,4] Of course, this has resulted in a higher proportion of Minority women being in the fertility-age range.

TABLE 1-A7

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF POPULATION BY AGE AND BY ETHNIC GROUP FOR UNITED STATES AND INDIANA: 1980

(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

					Minority									
	Total		White		Total[1]		Black		Hispanic[2]		Native Amer.		Asian/Pac Isl	
Population by Age	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN
< 20 years	72,416	1,836	57,380	1,636	15,036	201	10,579	172	2,436	19	656	3	1,250	7
> 64 years	25,498	585	22,942	553	2,557	33	2,067	30	176	2	80	1	222	1
Median Age	30	29	31	30	25	24	25	24	23	22	23	27	28	26
% Population by Age: < 20 yrs.	32%	33%	30%	33%	40%	41%	40%	41%	44%	45%	43%	35%	34%	31%
19<<65	57	56	58	56	53	52	52	51	53	52	52	60	61	67
> 64 yrs.	11	11	12	11	7	7	8	7	3	4	5	5	6	3

[1] *Estimated as all Non-Whites.*

[2] *Estimated as Total - Whites - Blacks - Native Americans - Asian/Pac. Islanders - Non-Spanish "Not Elsewhere Classified", i.e., Spanish people who do not identify themselves as any of the aforementioned races.*

SOURCE: *1980 U.S. Census Reports. (See Appendix 1-A6)*

The Minority population in Indiana and the U.S. in 1980 was much younger than the White population, with a median age of 24.3 years versus 29.8 years (see Table 1-A7). This was especially true for Hispanics (21.8 years). This lower age is exemplified by the percentage under 20 years of age. While 33 percent of Whites were under 20 years, 41 percent of Minorities were under 20 years. Of course this higher proportion of younger Minorities will reflect more women in the fertile-age range (15-44 years).

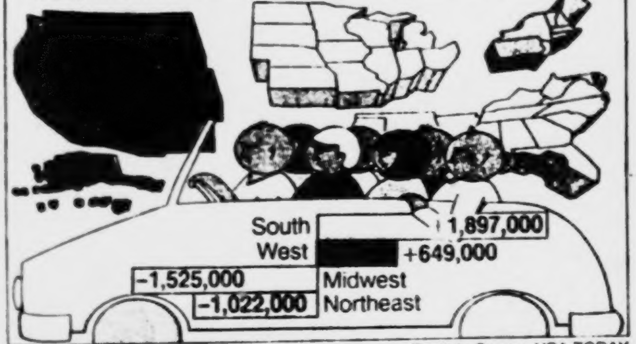
In contrast to the higher school-age percentages, Minorities had a lower retirement-age population (7% vs. 11% for Whites). Fewer than 4 percent of Hispanics and 3 percent of Oriental Americans were of retirement age.

(4) Recent Population Statistics

According to the Census Bureau, the population of the U.S. grew by 5.4 percent between 1980 and 1985. As shown in Map 1-A3 on the next page, 18 states had population growth greater than the U.S. in general. This greater growth occurred in the west, the southeast, and especially, the southwest, the latter probably reflecting the influx of Hispanics. Five states (plus D.C.) experienced a loss in population. The greatest reduction or least increase in population has tended to occur in previously heavily e.g., the Great Lakes or Plains states.

Big move to Sun Belt

During the first half of this decade the Northeast and Midwest lost residents to the South and West. Change in population from 1980-1985 due to interregional migration:

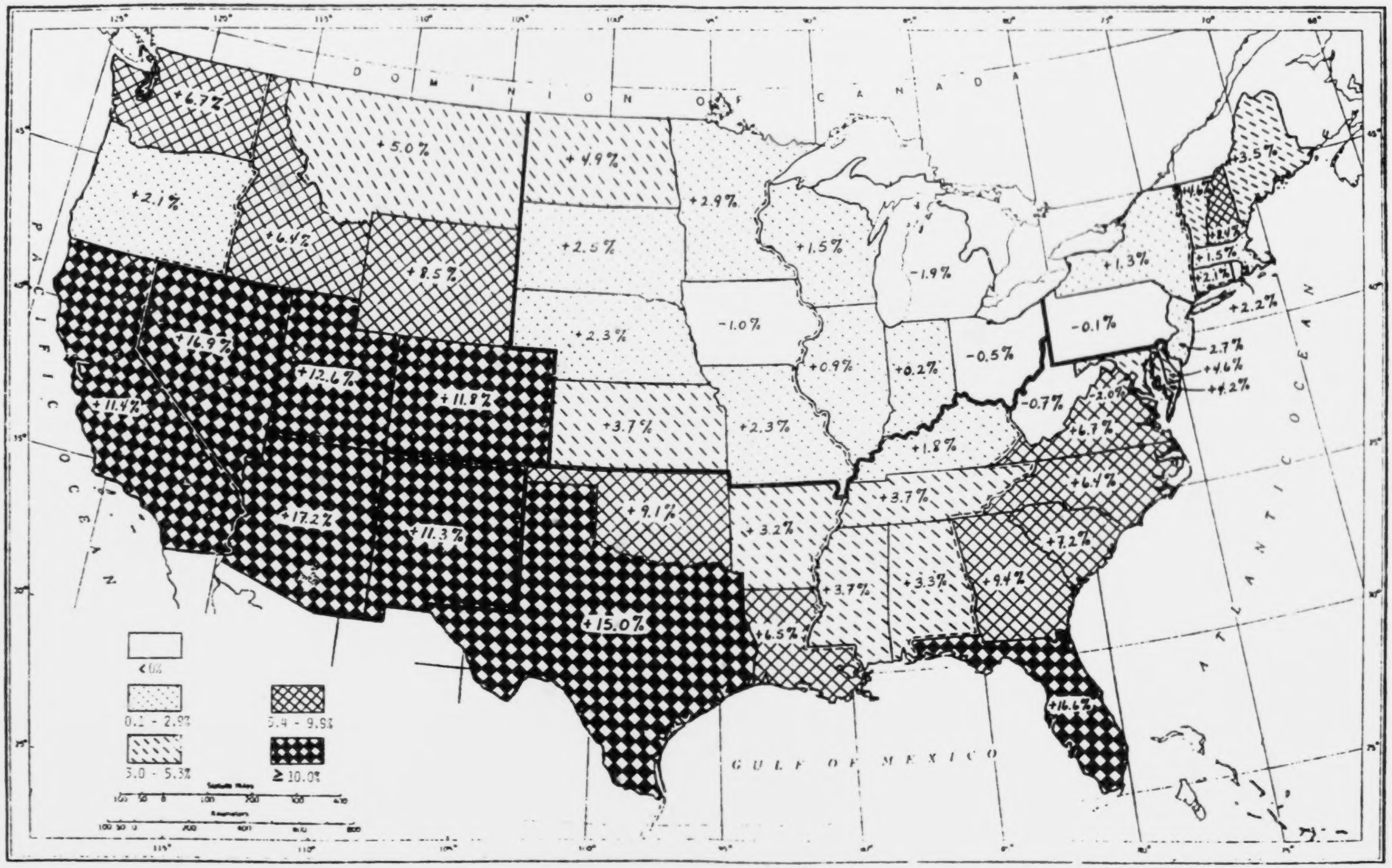


Source: *American Demographics magazine* By Julie Stacey, USA TODAY

MAP 1-A3

PERCENT POPULATION CHANGE: 1980-1985

UNITED STATES



SOURCE: *U.S. Bureau of the Census.*
NOTE 1: Census regions are outlined by a bold line and divisions within regions are outlined by a dashed line.
2: U.S. population change 1980-1985 was 5.4%.

TABLE 1-A8

POPULATION CHANGE OF INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES*: 1980-1985

Geographic Area	April 1, 1980 (Census)	July 1, 1985 (Estimate)	Change, 1980 to 1985 Number	%
INDIANA........	5,490,212	5,499,100	8,888	0.2%
Marion.......	765,233	779,966	14,733◄	1.9%
Lake.........	522,917	498,005	-24,912	-4.8
Allen........	294,335	290,911	-3,424	-1.2
St. Joseph...	241,617	241,034	-583	-0.2
Vanderburgh..	167,515	167,562	47	0.0
Madison......	139,336	132,948	-6,388	-4.6
LaPorte......	108,632	106,182	-2,450	-2.3
Delaware.....	128,587	122,353	-6,234	-4.8
Vigo.........	112,385	110,398	-1,987	-1.8
Elkhart......	137,330	145,235	7,905◄	5.8◄
Grant........	80,934	77,469	-3,465	-4.3
Monroe.......	98,785	101,446	2,661	2.7
Howard.......	86,896	65,317	-1,579	-1.8
Clark........	88,838	89,768	930	1.0
Tippecanoe...	121,702	123,788	2,086	1.7
Wayne........	76,058	73,240	-2,818	-3.7
Floyd........	61,205	62,903	1,698	2.8
Porter.......	119,816	123,534	3,718◄	3.1
Miami........	39,820	37,662	-2,158	-5.4
Bartholomew..	65,088	64,952	-136	-0.2
Johnson......	77,240	82,046	4,806◄	6.2◄
Hamilton.....	82,027	90,989	8,962◄	10.9◄
Selected Co's.	3,616,308	3,607,708	-8,600	-0.2%
Non-Sel Co's..	1,873,904	1,891,392	17,488	.9

* *Contained at least 1,000 ethnic minorities as of 1980 U.S. Census.*

__SOURCE__: Bureau of the Census (From Indiana State Library, State Data Center). See Appendix 1-A7.

There was virtually no change in Indiana's population between the decennial census (April 1, 1980) and July 1, 1985. In that period of over five years, the State's total growth was 8,888, just under two-tenths of one percent. Forty-four of the 92 counties in the State are estimated to have had population loss. Marion County had the largest numerical gain (14,733), and Hamilton County, the greatest percent increase (10.9%). The 22 selected Indiana counties are shown in Table 1-A8 above. Five counties (Lake, Madison, Delaware, Grant, and Allen) were each estimated to have lost over 3,000 in total population. (See Appendix 1-A6 for more details.)

B. Birthing Patterns

The increasing Minority representation within the U.S. and Indiana populations is attributable to high immigration (of Spanish and Asian persons) and also to substantially higher fertility rates of Spanish and Black women than for White women.[1,2] Asian women have the lowest rates. As shown in Tables 1-B1 and 1-B2, in contrast to an expected decreasing number of White women of childbearing age (15-44 years old) and White births is a major increase in the number and proportional representation of Minority childbearing-age women and Minority births from 1982 to 2005.

TABLE 1-B1

U.S. PROJECTED NUMBER OF CHILDBEARING-AGE WOMEN (15-44 YEARS OLD) BY RACE: 1982-2005

(THOUSANDS)

Year	Total Number (100%)	White[1]		Minority Total		Minority Black[2]		Minority Other Minority[3]	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1982	54,621	46,053	84.3%	8,568	15.7%	7,041	12.9%	1,527	2.8%
1984	55,935	46,895	83.8%	9,040	16.2%	7,307	13.1%	1,733	3.1%
1986	57,231	47,731	83.4%	9,500	16.6%	7,562	13.2%	1,938	3.4%
1988	57,803	47,902	82.9%	9,901	17.1%	7,764	13.4%	2,137	3.7%
1990	58,189	47,942	82.4%	10,247	17.6%	7,922	13.6%	2,325	4.0%
1992	58,141	47,592	81.9%	10,549	18.1%	8,048	13.8%	2,501	4.3%
1994	57,928	47,137	81.4%	10,791	18.6%	8,130	14.0%	2,661	4.6%
1996	57,870	46,802	80.9%	11,068	19.1%	8,237	14.2%	2,831	4.9%
1998	57,810	46,412	80.3%	11,398	19.7%	8,382	14.5%	3,016	5.2%
2000	57,592	45,826	79.6%	11,766	20.4%	8,497	14.8%	3,269	5.7%
2005	56,671	43,756	77.2%	12,915	22.8%	8,700	15.4%	4,215	7.4%

[1] Low "assumption series": Low birth rate, high life expectancy, & low net immigration.
[2] Middle "assumption series": Medium birth rate, life expectancy, & net immigration.
[3] Estimated to best match the current and projected situation: Total (Middle series) minus Whites (Low series) minus Blacks (Middle series)

NOTE: Approximately 60% of Spanish persons identify their race as "White."

SOURCE: Bureau of the Census, Projections of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1983 to 2080 (Current Population Reports, Population Estimates and Projections, Series P-25, No. 952). U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Washington, D.C., May 1984.

The high Minority fertility rates are in contrast to a net out-migration of Indiana's total population[2] and declining White population, thusly accelerating the relative growth of Minorities.

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[1] AP release, "Hispanic Population Growing Fast." USA Today, Thursday, Jan. 30, 1986.

[2] U.S. Bureau of the Census, Provisional Projections of the Population of States, by Age and Sex: 1980 to 2000 (Current Population Reports, Series P-25, No. 937). U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1983, pp. 39, 41.

TABLE 1-B2

U.S. PROJECTED NUMBER OF BIRTHS BY RACE: 1982-2005
(THOUSANDS)

Year	Total Number (100%)	White[1]		Minority					
				Total		Black[2]		Other Minority[3]	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1982	3731.2	3005.8	80.6%	725.4	19.4%	626.9	16.8%	98.5	2.6%
1984	3664.1	2924.2	79.8%	739.9	20.2%	637.1	17.4%	102.8	2.8%
1986	3643.7	2884.7	79.2%	759.0	20.8%	649.5	17.8%	109.5	3.0%
1988	3589.6	2818.2	78.5%	771.4	21.5%	655.7	18.3%	115.7	3.2%
1990	3503.6	2728.9	77.9%	774.7	22.1%	653.8	18.7%	120.9	3.5%
1995	3226.0	2466.4	76.5%	759.6	23.5%	628.6	19.5%	131.0	4.1%
2000	3063.0	2294.9	74.9%	768.1	25.1%	625.9	20.4%	142.2	4.6%
2005	3042.0	2237.7	73.6%	804.3	26.4%	651.9	21.4%	152.4	5.0%

[1] Low "assumption series": Low birth rate.
[2] Middle "assumption series": Medium birth rate.
[3] Estimated to best match the current and projected situation: Total (Middle series) minus White (Middle series) minus Blacks (Middle series)

NOTE: Approximately 60% of Spanish persons identify their race as "White."

SOURCE: Bureau of the Census, Projections of the Population of the United States by Age, Sex, and Race: 1983 to 2080 (Current Population Reports, Population Estimates and Projections, Series P-25, No. 952). U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Washington, D.C., May 1984.

The gradual increase in the size of the Minority population in Indiana is based in large part on the higher birth rates of Non-White women and the fact that a higher percentage of them are in the fertility-age range. As shown earlier in Table 1-A3, all Minorities accounted for about 8.9 percent of the total population in 1980 and grew to nearly 9.5 percent in 1985. However, between 1982 and 1984, fewer than 89 percent of all births were White, while 11.2 percent were Non-White.

NOTE: Those who might think that the size of Indiana's Minority population, now slightly less than 10 percent, is relatively "small", should note that

- ▶ The Minority population is already well over a half-million persons,
- ▶ One out of every four babies being born in the four counties with the largest populations is Non-White,
- ▶ One out of every six babies being born in the twenty-two counties which have more than 1,000 Minorities in their populations is Non-White, and
- ▶ These Non-White representation rates are growing.

TABLE 1-B3

FERTILITY RATES* BY AGE GROUP IN THE UNITED STATES AND INDIANA BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980

(NUMBER IN THOUSANDS)

					Minority									
	Total		White		Total[1]		Black		Hispanic[2]		Native American		Asian & Pac. Isl.	
	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN
Women 15-24 yrs:														
Number Women	21,063	524.8	16,997	471.1	4,067	53.6	2,919	46.6	631	3.7	171	1.0	320	2.2
Number Children	6,670	186.8	4,576	156.2	2,095	30.6	1,576	27.6	350	1.9	90	.6	69	.4
Fertility Rate	.317	.356	.269	▲ .332	.515	▲ .570	.540	.593	.554	.513	.529	.615	.217	.189
Women 25-34 yrs:														
Number Women	18,747	442.7	15,395	400.7	3,352	42.0	2,267	34.6	494	2.7	133	1.2	435	3.3
Number Children	27,677	724.1	21,610	643.9	6,066	80.3	4,215	67.6	1,016	5.7	267	2.1	537	4.6
Fertility Rate	1.476	1.636	1.404	1.607	1.810	1.911	1.859	1.955	2.057	2.070	2.014	1.820	1.233	1.381
Women 35-44 yrs:														
Number Women	13,067	312.3	10,931	286.2	2,136	26.0	1,481	22.1	283	1.3	87	.6	274	1.9
Number Children	34,490	863.2	27,812	780.0	6,679	83.2	4,715	71.5	1,011	5.0	301	2.1	623	4.4
Fertility Rate	2.639	2.764	2.544	2.725	3.126	3.196	3.185	3.229	3.571	3.843	3.462	3.484	2.272	2.289

** Number of children per woman in fertility-age period indicated.*

[1] *Estimated as all Non-Whites.*

[2] *Estimated as Total - Whites - Blacks - Native Americans - Asian/Pac. Islanders - Non-Spanish "Not Elsewhere Classified", i.e., Spanish people who do not identify themselves as any of the aforementioned races.*

SOURCE: *1980 U.S. Census reports. See Appendix 1-B3.*

In Indiana in 1980, for every thousand women 15 through 24 years old, there were 356 children (shown as a birth rate of .356). This was a higher rate than in the U.S. (.317). The number of children was much lower for White women (332) than for Minority women (570), especially Native American and Black women. Oriental Americans were much lower (189) than even Whites.

For every thousand women 25 through 34 years old in Indiana, the number of children was much higher (1,636) than for the 15 through 24 age group and also higher than in the U.S. (1,476). Again, the number of children was lower for White women (1,607) than for Minority women (1,911), although proportionately not as great a disparity, with the greatest number of children for Hispanic and Black women. Oriental Americans were lowest (1,381).

For every thousand women 35 through 44 years old in Indiana, the number of children was 2,764, slightly higher than in the U.S. (2,639). For White women the number was 2,725, lower than for Minority women (3,196), especially Hispanic and Native American women. Oriental Americans were again the lowest.

NOTE: Among White women 15 through 24 years old in Indiana, 8.8% of the children born were illegitimate, whereas 55% of Minority women's children in this age group were illegitimate. This compares to 9.7% for U.S. White women and 47.3% for Minority women in the same age group. (See Chapter 4, Section A.)

TABLE 1-B4

BIRTHS BY RACE* FOR INDIANA: 1970-1984

	Number			Crude Birth Rates[1]		Percent of all Births			Fertility Rates[2]		Fertility Rate Ratio: Non-White to White
	Total	White	Non-White	White	Non-White	Total	White	Non-White	White	Non-White	
1970	99,379	90,114	9,265	1.87%	2.48%	100.0%	90.68%	9.32%	8.95%	11.22%	1.25
1971	95,499	86,071	9,428	1.77	2.44	100.0	90.13	9.87	8.42	10.92	1.30
1972	87,140	78,021	9,119	1.59	2.29	100.0	89.54	10.46	7.50	10.12	1.35
1973	83,882	74,983	8,899	1.53	2.18	100.0	89.39	10.61	7.08	9.45	1.33
1974	83,240	74,185	9,055	1.51	2.16	100.0	89.12	10.88	6.88	9.20	1.34
1975	82,397	73,211	9,186	1.50	2.16	100.0	88.85	11.15	6.71	8.99	1.34
1976	80,648	71,802	8,846	1.47	2.04	100.0	89.03	10.97	6.47	8.31	1.28
1977	85,144	75,505	9,639	1.55	2.17	100.0	88.68	11.32	6.83	8.87	1.30
1978	83,348	74,007	9,341	1.51	2.04	100.0	88.79	11.21	6.57	8.24	1.25
1979	87,098	77,274	9,824	1.57	2.10	100.0	88.72	11.28	6.76	8.34	1.23
1980	88,420	78,517	9,903	1.57	2.04	100.0	88.80	11.20	6.78	8.12	1.20
1981	84,651	75,135	9,516	1.51	1.93	100.0	88.76	11.24	6.50	7.64	1.18
1982	83,890	74,560	9,330	1.50	1.86	100.0	88.88	11.12	6.38	7.26	1.14
1983	80,777	71,684	9,093	NA	NA	100.0	88.74	11.26	NA	NA	NA
1984	79,883	70,931	8,952	NA	NA	100.0	88.79	11.21	NA	NA	NA

[1] *Births as percent of population.*

[2] *Births as percent of female population in fertile age period (15 to 45 yrs. of age).*

* *Race is self-reported by parent(s) on child's birth certificate. Non-White includes Blacks, Native Americans, Asians and Pacific Islanders, and other Non-Whites, except Hispanics. Spanish-origin is not identified, but (according to the U.S. Census) more than half of Indiana Spanish-origin persons identify themselves as White. Typically low birth-rate "White" includes some (high birth-rate) Minorities, while "Non-White" includes low birth-rate Oriental Americans. Thus, in this Table, the numbers of White births are over-stated, and Minorities are understated, because Hispanics are treated as Minority group members throughout this report.*

SOURCES: *Indiana Births 1979-1981. Indiana State Board of Health, 1984. Augmented by 1983 & 1984 data from Indiana State Board of Health, Oct. 1985.*

The total number of births in Indiana decreased from about 99,400 in 1970 to 80,600 in 1976, increased to 88,400 in 1980 and then declined again to 79,900 in 1984. The largest part of the 1970 to 1984 decrease was in the number of White babies, which fell from 90,100 in 1970 to only 70,900 in 1984 (a 21.3% decrease). However, the number of Non-White babies born remained relatively stable, starting with 9,300 in 1970 (9.3% of total births) and ending with 9,000 in 1984 (11.2% of total births). This uneven change is due to higher fertility rates for Minorities during this period of time, which is expected to continue. Although the growing numbers of births to Hispanic mothers is not available (Indiana Board of Health data show only White and Non-White births), the fertility rate (as well as the growth rate) of Hispanics is known to be the highest of all ethnic groups.

The fertility rates (births as a percent of fertility-age women) declined markedly from 1970 to 1982 for both Whites and Non-Whites. The fertility rate ratio (Non-White to White) has also declined, but the fertility rate of Non-Whites has remained higher than that of Whites.

TABLE 1-B5

BIRTHS BY RACE FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES FOR THREE-YEAR PERIOD: 1979-1981

Geographic Area	Number of Births			Crude Birth Rate[1]		Percent of all Births			Fertility Rate[2]	
	Total	White	Non-White	White	Non-White	Total	White	Non-White	White	Non-White
Indiana	260,169	230,926	29,243	1.54%	2.01%	100.0%	88.76%	11.24%	6.65%	8.00%
Marion County	39,152	28,898	10,254	1.60	2.08	100.0	73.81	26.19	6.65	8.29
Lake	28,478	19,363	9,115	1.73	2.03	100.0	67.99	32.01	7.69	8.13
Allen	15,225	12,999	2,226	1.65	2.36	100.0	85.38	14.62	6.96	9.32
St. Joseph	11,116	9,439	1,677	1.46	2.19	100.0	84.91	15.09	6.52	8.87
Vanderburgh	7,789	6,876	913	1.49	2.31	100.0	88.28	11.72	6.56	9.91
Madison	5,943	5,301	642	1.37	2.05	100.0	89.20	10.80	6.10	8.46
LaPorte	5,102	4,492	610	1.51	2.09	100.0	88.04	11.96	6.93	9.67
Delaware	5,051	4,581	470	1.27	1.83	100.0	90.69	9.31	4.93	7.17
Virgo	4,811	4,458	353	1.42	1.55	100.0	92.66	7.34	6.17	5.86
Elkhart	7,016	6,591	425	1.69	1.93	100.0	93.94	6.06	7.22	7.60
Grant	3,545	3,221	324	1.44	1.70	100.0	90.86	9.14	6.20	7.12
Howard	4,145	3,872	273	1.58	1.76	100.0	93.41	6.59	6.69	6.76
Clark	4,002	3,727	275	1.48	1.84	100.0	93.13	6.87	6.13	7.21
Monroe	3,540	3,376	164	1.20	1.03	100.0	95.37	4.63	3.96	2.67
Wayne	3,432	3,216	216	1.50	1.65	100.0	93.71	6.29	6.73	7.49
Tippecanoe	5,031	4,820	211	1.37	1.47	100.0	95.81	4.19	5.02	4.56
Floyd	2,751	2,626	125	1.49	1.71	100.0	95.46	4.54	6.39	6.80
Porter	5,836	5,786	50	1.64	.85	100.0	99.14	.86	6.49	3.05
Miami	2,166	2,043	123	1.80	2.12	100.0	94.32	5.68	7.98	7.66
Bartholomew	2,727	2,671	56	1.40	1.16	100.0	97.95	2.05	5.84	4.51
Johnson	3,472	3,435	37	1.51	.93	100.0	98.93	1.07	6.17	3.88
Hamilton	3,557	3,510	47	1.44	1.56	100.0	98.68	1.32	5.95	6.32
Total Sel. Co.'s	173,887	145,301	28,586	1.54	2.03	100.0	83.56	16.44	6.57	8.08
Total Nonsel. Co's	86,282	85,625	657	1.54	1.38	100.0	99.24	.76	6.79	5.67

[1] *Births as percent of population.*

[2] *Births as percent of female population in fertile age period, 15-44 years of age.*

SOURCE: *Indiana Births 1979-1981. Indiana State Board of Health, 1984.*

During the years 1979 through 1984, almost 98 percent of Non-White births occurred in the selected 22 counties (see Tables 1-B5 and 1-B6). Moreover, almost 80 percent occurred in the four counties with the most Minorities (66% in the two largest, Marion and Lake Counties). These top four counties (Marion, Lake, Allen and St. Joseph) tended to have higher crude birth rates (births as percent of population) and fertility rates (births as percent of female population aged 15 through 44 years) than Indiana in general, especially for Non-Whites (see Table 1-B5). In contrast, the 70 non-selected counties (low numbers of Minorities) had much lower crude birth rates and fertility rates than Indiana in general, while Whites in these counties had higher fertility rates. Thus, it appears that, the more Minority-populated the county, the higher the Non-White crude-birth and fertility rates but the lower the White fertility rate.

Between the 1979-81 and 1982-84 periods, while the number of births declined for most Indiana counties, the number increased for Marion, Monroe and Tippecanoe Counties. This was the case for both Whites and Non-Whites.

TABLE 1-B6

BIRTHS* BY RACE FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES FOR THREE-YEAR PERIOD: 1982-1984

Geographic Area	Number of Births			Percent of all Births		
	Total	White	Non-White	Total	White	Non-White
Indiana	244,550	217,175	27,375	100.0%	88.81%	11.19%
Marion County	39,823	29,503	10,320	100.0%	74.09%	25.91%
Lake	24,521	16,666	7,855	100.0	67.97	32.03
Allen	14,061	12,070	1,991	100.0	85.84	14.16
St. Joseph	10,535	8,865	1,670	100.0	84.15	15.85
Vanderburgh	7,296	6,470	826	100.0	88.68	11.32
Madison County	5,104	4,616	488	100.0%	90.44%	9.56%
LaPorte	4,648	4,127	521	100.0	88.79	11.21
Delaware	4,622	4,167	455	100.0	90.16	9.84
Vigo	4,606	4,236	370	100.0	91.97	8.03
Elkhart	6,981	6,502	479	100.0	93.14	6.86
Grant County	3,066	2,760	306	100.0%	90.02%	9.98%
Howard	3,761	3,533	228	100.0	93.94	6.06
Clark	3,714	3,482	232	100.0	93.75	6.25
Monroe	3,589	3,393	196	100.0	94.54	5.46
Wayne	3,001	2,812	189	100.0	93.70	6.30
Tippecanoe	5,313	5,094	219	100.0%	95.88%	4.12%
Floyd	2,587	2,462	125	100.0	95.17	4.83
Porter	5,415	5,365	50	100.0	99.08	.92
Miami	1,950	1,861	89	100.0	95.44	4.56
Bartholomew	2,552	2,470	82	100.0	96.79	3.21
Johnson County	3,345	3,307	38	100.0%	98.86%	1.14%
Hamilton	3,524	3,483	41	100.0	98.84	1.16
Total Sel. Co.'s	164,014	137,244	26,770	100.0%	83.68%	16.32%
Total NonSel.Co.'s	80,536	79,931	605	100.0	99.25	.75

** Data are not available to calculate Crude Birth Rates and Fertility Rates for 1982-84.*

***SOURCE**: Indiana State Board of Health, October 1985.*

TABLE 1-B7

LIVE BIRTHS AND ABORTIONS BY RACE[1] FOR INDIANA: 1980-1984

	Number of Live Births			Percent of all Live Births		Number of Abortions			Percent of all Abortions	
	Total	White	Non-White	White	Non-White	Total[2]	White	Non-White	White	Non-White
1980	88,420	78,517	9,903	88.80%	11.20%	15,835	12,447	2,965	78.6%	18.7%
1981	84,651	75,135	9,516	88.76%	11.24%	14,650	11,609	2,676	79.2%	18.3%
1982	83,890	74,560	9,330	88.88%	11.12%	15,316	11,700	3,172	76.4%	20.7%
1983	80,777	71,684	9,093	88.74%	11.26%	13,451	10,338	2,820	76.9%	21.0%
1984	79,883	70,931	8,952	88.79%	11.21%	14,830	11,315	2,986	76.3%	20.1%

[1] NOTE: *Race is self-reported by parent(s) on a child's birth certificate. Non-White includes Blacks, Native Americans, Asians and Pacific Islanders, and other Non-Whites, except Hispanics. Spanish-origin is not identified, but (according to the U.S. Census) more than half of Indiana Spanish-origin persons identify themselves as White. Thus, typically low birth-rate "White" includes some (high birth-rate) Minorities, while "Non-White" includes low birth-rate Oriental Americans. Thus, in this Table the numbers of White births are over-stated, and Minorities are under-stated, because Hispanics are treated as Minority group members throughout this report.*

[2] *Includes abortions of persons not reporting race.*

SOURCE: *Indiana State Board of Health.*

Between 1980 and 1984, inclusively, the number of live births in Indiana decreased markedly for Whites and Non-Whites (see Table 1-B7). At the same time, Non-Whites accounted for a relatively stable 11.2 percent of the births. However, Non-Whites also accounted for 20 percent of the abortions performed, a slight increase from 1980. The number of Non-White abortions remained relatively stable in general while the number of White abortions decreased slightly. Therefore, except for the abortions performed during this period, Non-White births would have remained relatively constant while White births would have still decreased, resulting in an increasing proportion of births being Non-White. It might also be noted that the ratio of live births to abortions was approximately six or seven to one for Whites but three to one for Non-Whites.

2. EDUCATION TRENDS

The education system is losing young people. The baby boom has gone "bust," and America "will simply not be a nation of youth in our lifetime." One obvious conclusion, says Mr. Hodgkinson, is that colleges and universities will have to attract, retain, and succeed in educating more and more older students, or the institutions may not long survive.

Widespread poverty, teen-age pregnancy, single-parent families, and other symptoms of social decay are virtually guaranteeing a rapid rise in the number of children with serious physical and educational disabilities. Inevitably, most of these children will enter and move through the schools, from kindergarten to high school and beyond. That means that the battle for "remediation," already a *cause célèbre* in higher education, really ought to begin a lot sooner than in college, Mr. Hodgkinson maintains -- and college and university leaders ought to be right in the thick of it by working with the schools on their curricula.

Racial minorities are reproducing much faster than the white population, a fact of life that means that schools and colleges will be made up increasingly of the kinds of student with whom most present-day educators have had relatively little experience.

Aren't such observations already part of the "conventional wisdom"? Haven't academic leaders, researchers, and other observers of education been talking about such trends for years? And aren't most officials struggling to get out in front of them?

Mr. Hodgkinson thinks not -- not adequately, at any rate. And the problems are potentially so grave and so unlike those of the past, he says, that many educational and political leaders have been afraid to acknowledge them, much less confront them.

... The key to dealing effectively with the coming demographic changes, he argues, is to focus not on the institutions but on the people who move through them.

... [I]f college officials simply were to find out who is entering the public schools now for the first time, they could easily figure out who is likely to be in their freshman classes 13 years down the road....

A look at who is "coming up through the system" of American education means that college and university officials "have got to spend a lot more time with the public-school leadership in their own states, in their own communities," Mr. Hodgkinson believes. He adds that solutions to many educational problems will have to be found at the local level, because enrollments and other demographic trends vary greatly from one area to another....

On the other hand, he says, if college administrators and faculty members were to collaborate more with public-school educators, they could make "the whole system of communication" of each discipline more effective throughout a person's schooling....

Mr. Hodgkinson also criticizes state legislatures that have adopted programs to reform elementary and secondary education without providing funds for extra tutoring, counseling, and other special services that students may need. He calls that "a disastrous mistake."

One issue raised by Mr. Hodgkinson that seems destined to attract more attention from planners in higher education is how the undergraduate curriculum may need to be reshaped for an increasing proportion of part-time, adult learners -- many of them former college students or even college graduates.[1] (pp. 1,28,29)

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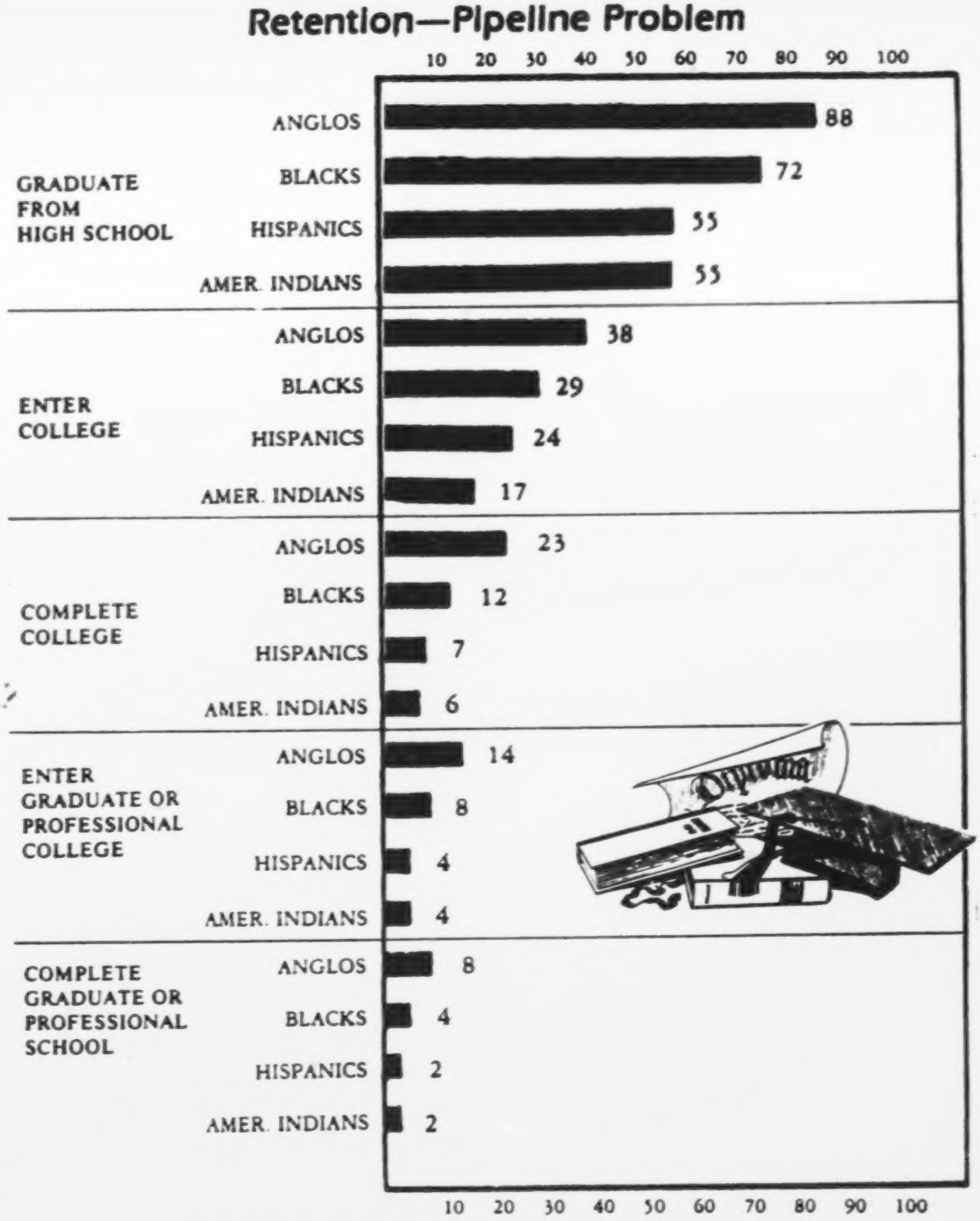
[1] Robert L. Jacobson, "Consultant's Delight: Making Educators and Politicians Confront the Bad News." The Chronicle of Higher Education, March 19, 1986, pp. 1,28,29. (Speaking of Harold L. Hodgkinson, a senior fellow at the American Council on Education and former Director of the National Institute of Education.)

The retention disparities between ethnic groups are significant -- and consistent.

FIGURE 2-A1



Source: Alexander Astin, Minorities in American Higher Education, Jossey-Bass, 1982.

From Black Issues In Higher Education, Vol. 2 (No. 9), p. 2.

A. Adult Educational Levels

With the rapidly increasing ethnic-minority populations, there is growing concern about the relatively low educational level that has been achieved by adults. Except for Asian Americans (who tend to be well-educated[2]), ethnic-minority adults tend to be much less-well educated than White adults. This is especially true for Spanish persons[3,4] and Native Americans. Educational-level patterns of Minorities in Indiana have tended to parallel those of the U.S. in general.

According to the 1980 Census, of the 132.8 million adults 25 years of age or older in the United States, almost one-third had obtained at least one year of post-high school education:

	All	White	Blacks	Hispanics	Native American	Asian American
U.S.	32%	33%	22%	16%	24%	50%
INDIANA	24%	25%	20%	16%	23%	58%

However, much higher percentages of Whites and Oriental Americans obtained at least one year of higher education than did Hispanics, Blacks or Native Americans.

Of the 3.14 million Indiana adults, only one-fourth had obtained one or more years of higher education, which is well below the U.S. (or Midwest) averages. Similar to the U.S. and the Midwest, Oriental Americans and Whites in Indiana had higher percentages achieving at least one year of higher education than did Hispanics, Blacks or Native Americans. In contrast, a higher percentage of Hispanic adults, as well as Native American and Black adults, had less than a high school education than did Oriental American or White adults. (See Figure 2-A2 for details.)

Educational levels of Indiana adults varied across counties, as exemplified by the four largest ones, shown in Table 2-A1. The percentage of total population with one or more years of higher education was 32 percent for Allen County and 31 percent for Marion County out only 22 percent for Lake County and 28 percent for St. Joseph County. Similarly, the percent of Hispanics with such education was highest for Marion and Allen Counties and lower for Lake and St. Joseph Counties. Conversely, the percent of Blacks with one or more years of higher education was highest for St. Joseph and Lake Counties but slightly lower for Allen and Marion Counties.

The educational levels of adults for each of the other 18 counties having more than 1,000 Minority members in 1980 are also presented in Table 2-A1.

Note that more than half of all Indiana Hispanic adults (60.4%) and almost half of all Hispanics (48.6%) are in Lake County.

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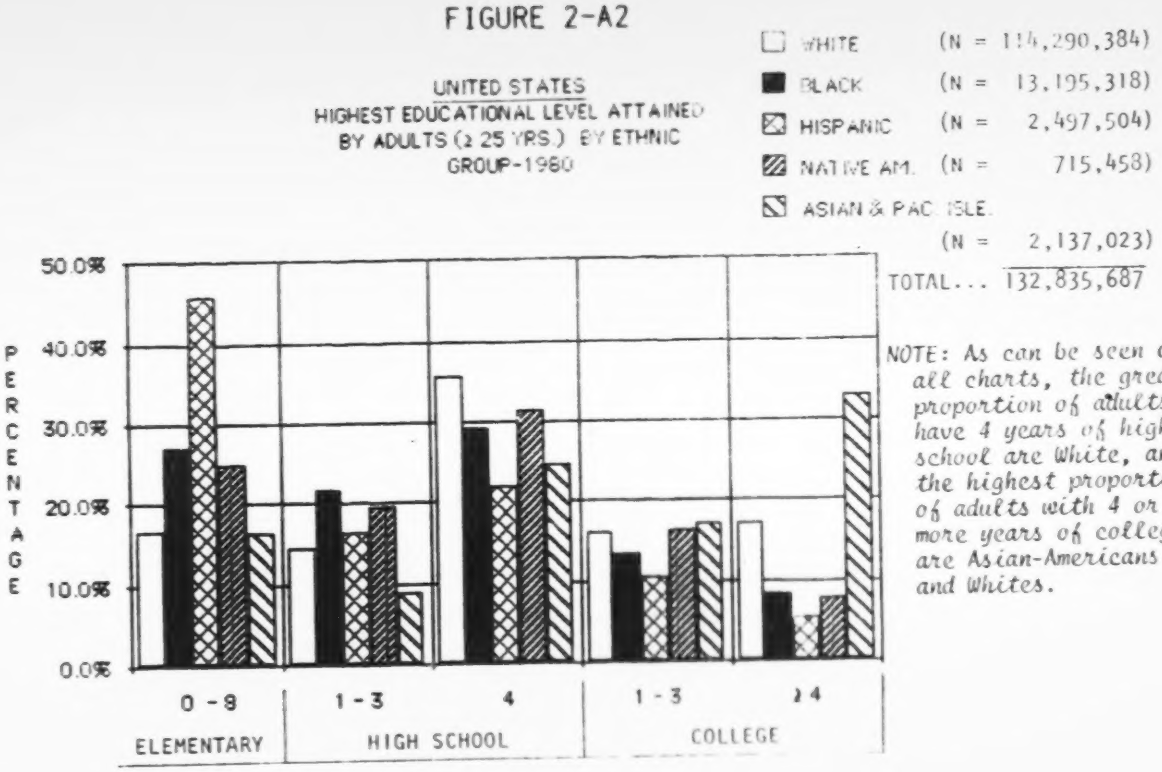
[2] Paul Clancy, "141% Growth for Asians in the USA." USA Today, Thursday, October 10, 1985.

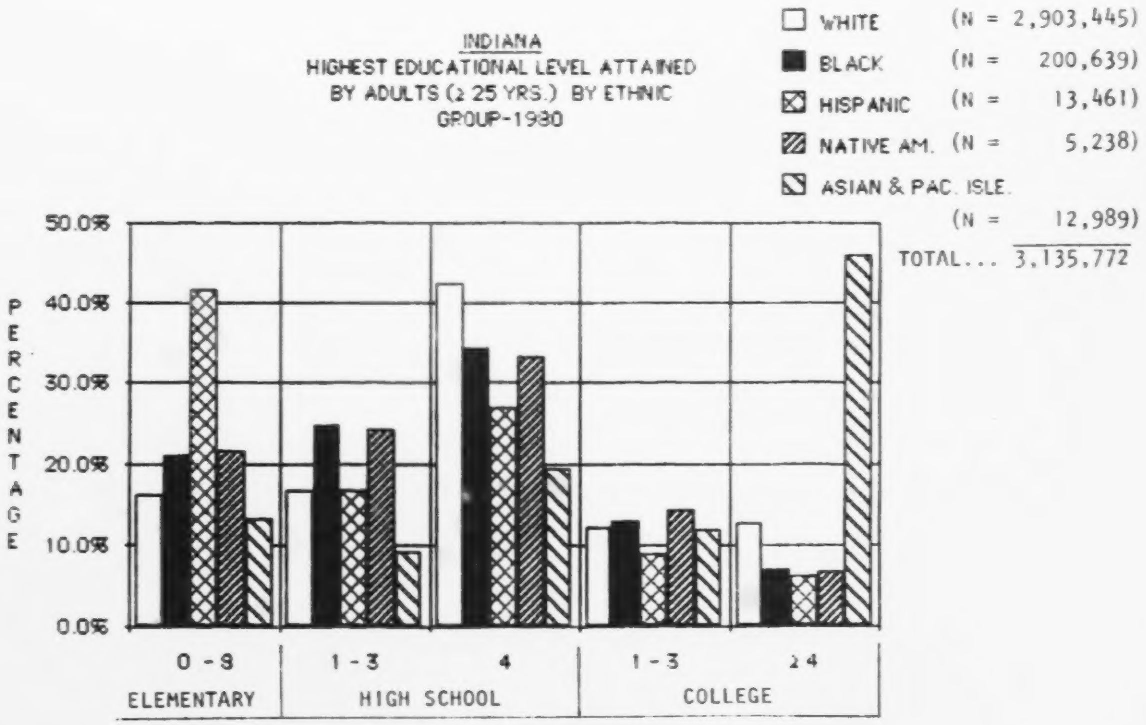
[3] John S. Lang & Jeannye Thornton, "The Disappearing Border." U.S. News & World Report, Aug. 19, 1985, pp. 30-31.

[4] AP release, "Hispanic Population Growing Fast." USA Today, Thursday, Jan. 30, 1986, p. 3A.

FIGURE 2-A2


UNITED STATES
HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED
BY ADULTS (≥ 25 YRS.) BY ETHNIC
GROUP-1980

NOTE: As can be seen on all charts, the greatest proportion of adults who have 4 years of high school are White, and the highest proportions of adults with 4 or more years of college are Asian-Americans and Whites.


INDIANA
HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED
BY ADULTS (≥ 25 YRS.) BY ETHNIC
GROUP-1980

SOURCE: 1980 U.S. Census Reports. See Appendices 2-A1 & 2-A2.

TABLE 2-A1

HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL ATTAINED BY ADULTS (≥ 25 YRS.) FOR SELECTED INDIANA COUNTIES BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980

Marion County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	14.8%	17.8%	36.8%	14.3%	16.3%	444,056
White	13.4	16.0	37.7	14.5	18.3	361,440
Black	20.8	26.2	33.2	13.1	6.6	78,239
Hispanic	25.9	13.6	34.1	9.9	16.6	819
Native Amer.	18.0	18.1	29.3	22.2	12.4	873
Asian & Pac. Isle.	13.3	7.9	21.9	15.6	41.3	2,685

Lake County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	18.2%	18.5%	41.1%	12.1%	10.1%	290,394
White	16.6	17.2	43.4	12.0	10.9	219,420
Black	20.6	23.2	36.0	13.1	7.1	60,984
Hispanic	43.5	18.7	26.3	8.1	3.4	8,137
Native Amer.	24.4	25.5	28.5	14.4	7.3	439
Asian & Pac. Isle.	10.3	12.3	13.2	15.1	49.2	1,417

Allen County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	12.2%	14.5%	41.2%	17.0%	15.0%	166,389
White	11.6	13.6	41.9	17.4	15.5	153,143
Black	19.3	27.0	34.7	13.1	5.9	11,114
Hispanic	30.6	15.8	30.5	13.1	10.0	840
Native Amer.	12.8	17.8	45.4	16.3	7.7	337
Asian & Pac. Isle.	19.0	8.5	16.5	9.1	46.9	955

St. Joseph County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	14.9%	17.5%	40.0%	12.9%	14.6%	140,911
White	14.0	17.0	41.0	12.9	15.1	129,066
Black	24.1	24.1	30.6	13.9	7.3	10,365
Hispanic	52.0	18.2	16.6	8.1	5.0	565
Native Amer.	21.9	38.3	23.9	7.0	9.0	201
Asian & Pac. Isle.	16.8	7.7	16.7	11.1	47.8	714

Vanderburgh County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	20.0%	15.8%	39.1%	12.6%	12.5%	101,711
White	19.6	15.2	39.5	12.8	13.0	95,072
Black	25.6	25.1	34.1	9.7	5.4	6,122
Hispanic	34.1	13.9	28.9	19.3	3.8	367
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	23.0	16.0	22.0	16.0	23.0	287

Madison County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	17.2%	18.2%	44.2%	9.9%	10.4%	81,189
White	17.0	17.9	44.8	9.9	10.5	76,501
Black	22.2	24.3	36.0	9.8	7.7	4,284
Hispanic	24.5	24.2	27.6	11.1	12.5	351
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

SOURCE: 1980 U.S. Census Reports. See Appendices 1-A1 & 2-A2.

TABLE 2-A1 (Continued)

LaPorte County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	16.0%	20.4%	42.0%	11.1%	10.6%	63,540
White	15.3	19.7	42.7	11.3	11.0	58,954
Black	22.9	30.5	33.6	9.2	3.8	4,006
Hispanic	30.8	20.3	30.0	15.0	4.0	601
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Delaware County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	15.5%	18.2%	40.7%	10.8%	14.9%	69,925
White	14.9	17.9	41.2	10.8	15.2	65,811
Black	26.2	22.7	34.4	10.6	6.1	3,648
Hispanic	20.9	30.2	27.6	9.5	11.9	388
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Vigo County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	14.8%	16.9%	39.0%	13.1%	16.3%	64,378
White	14.5	16.8	39.5	13.1	16.1	60,899
Black	20.8	21.9	30.2	12.4	14.7	2,867
Hispanic	17.4	7.1	47.4	17.7	10.3	350
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	6.0	1.3	15.8	18.8	58.0	398

Elkhart County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	16.4%	18.0%	41.1%	12.2%	12.3%	78,491
White	16.0	17.7	41.5	12.3	12.5	75,398
Black	26.0	26.8	32.7	9.9	4.6	2,400
Hispanic	33.6	18.8	27.5	8.3	11.7	648
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	15.0	11.0	24.0	6.3	43.7	254

Grant County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	17.1%	20.2%	42.2%	10.7%	9.7%	46,199
White	16.6	19.9	42.6	10.8	10.0	43,326
Black	23.5	25.1	38.5	8.4	4.4	2,367
Hispanic	40.0	17.8	27.8	5.7	8.6	557
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Howard County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	15.2%	16.4%	45.6%	11.9%	11.0%	49,659
White	15.1	16.2	45.8	11.7	11.2	47,100
Black	13.5	21.2	44.4	16.1	4.9	2,096
Hispanic	46.5	11.9	23.1	7.9	10.6	454
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

TABLE 2-A1 (Continued)

Clark County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	19.6%	16.7%	40.9%	13.6%	9.2%	50,780
White	19.7	16.6	41.0	13.4	9.3	48,230
Black	17.8	19.5	38.7	18.2	5.9	2,235
Hispanic	21.5	16.7	33.3	11.3	17.2	186
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Monroe County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	11.8%	13.4%	29.7%	13.7%	31.3%	48,024
White	12.1	13.8	30.5	13.6	30.1	46,191
Black	8.7	6.2	16.7	22.1	46.2	885
Hispanic	5.7	7.5	16.7	15.0	55.1	401
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	1.6	3.2	6.4	4.7	84.1	747

Wayne County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	16.2%	20.0%	42.2%	11.4%	10.1%	45,021
White	16.0	19.8	42.5	11.3	10.4	42,741
Black	20.9	24.7	36.2	14.6	3.6	2,058
Hispanic	-	-	-	-	-	-
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Tippecanoe County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	10.6%	12.6%	37.4%	13.9%	25.5%	59,321
White	10.7	12.8	38.3	13.8	24.5	57,395
Black	8.8	13.1	18.7	23.0	36.4	673
Hispanic	24.5	4.4	20.9	17.9	32.2	497
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	5.7	1.9	6.3	7.5	78.7	1,004

Floyd County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	21.1%	16.3%	40.6%	11.4%	10.6%	35,925
White	21.1	16.0	40.7	11.4	10.7	34,658
Black	21.5	24.2	37.6	11.2	5.5	1,158
Hispanic	-	-	-	-	-	-
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Porter County

	Elem.	High School		College		
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	N=
Total	10.8%	14.7%	45.7%	14.1%	14.7%	64,843
White	10.7	14.8	45.8	14.2	14.6	64,044
Black	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hispanic	18.4	16.3	48.3	11.8	5.3	1,089
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	16.2	7.9	14.0	8.3	53.2	265

TABLE 2-A1 (Continued)

Miami County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	14.8%	15.0%	50.1%	12.3%	7.8%	21,905
White	14.6	14.9	50.6	12.1	7.8	21,189
Black	12.8	18.7	36.9	20.4	11.1	406
Hispanic	15.3	14.7	30.7	37.3	2.0	150
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Bartholomew County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	16.8%	14.7%	41.7%	12.0%	14.8%	37,546
White	16.9	14.7	41.8	12.0	14.7	36,706
Black	11.1	17.0	44.6	13.6	13.6	513
Hispanic	48.4	10.0	20.1	7.3	14.2	219
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Johnson County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	14.7%	14.4%	44.3%	13.3%	13.3%	43,257
White	14.7	14.4	44.5	13.2	13.3	42,850
Black	13.2	36.3	35.3	12.1	3.2	190
Hispanic	18.8	16.9	31.2	24.4	8.8	160
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Hamilton County

	Elem.	High School		College		N=
	0 - 8	1 - 3	4	1 - 3	4+	
Total	8.8%	10.5%	37.4%	17.5%	25.7%	47,451
White	8.8	10.5	37.4	17.6	25.7	46,951
Black	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hispanic	11.9	7.5	36.7	17.3	26.5	226
Native Amer.	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asian & Pac. Isle.	10.6	8.2	33.7	6.7	40.9	208

SOURCE: 1980 U.S. Census Reports. See Appendices 1-A1 & 2-A2.

TABLE 2-A2

YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED FOR PERSONS 15 YEARS OLD AND OVER BY AGE AND FOR PERSONS 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER BY SEX AND RACE FOR INDIANA: MARCH 1984

(CIVILIAN POPULATION, NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

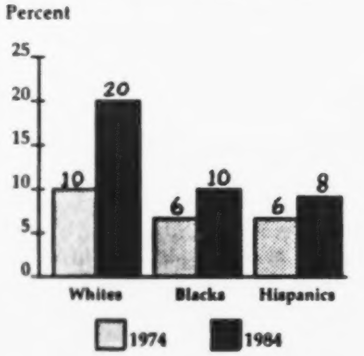
		Elementary	High School		College			Percent		Median school years completed
INDIANA	Total persons	0 - 8 years	1 - 3 years	4 years	1 - 3 years	4 years	5 or more years	4 years of high school or more	4 years or more College	
Total 15 years old and over	4,151	437	862	1,814	577	230	232	68.7%	11.1%	12.4
15 to 19 years old	477	65	288	106	17	-	-	25.8	-	10.9
20 to 24 years old	483	12	57	234	152	26	2	85.8	5.7	12.7
25 to 34 years old	912	23	112	477	138	84	79	85.3	17.9	12.7
35 to 44 years old	700	48	93	333	102	59	66	79.9	17.8	12.6
45 to 54 years old	469	40	101	209	61	14	42	69.7	12.1	12.4
55 to 64 years old	534	93	100	234	54	29	24	63.9	9.9	12.3
65 years old & over	577	155	112	220	53	18	19	53.7	6.4	12.1
Total 25 years old and over	3,192	360	517	1,473	408	204	230	72.5%	13.6%	12.5
Male	1,511	166	233	637	216	112	147	73.6	17.1	12.6
Female	1,681	195	284	836	191	92	82	71.5	10.4	12.4
White	2,963	321	474	1,388	371	198	210	73.2%	13.8%	12.5
Black	204	36	41	82	36	3	5	61.8	3.8	12.3

Source: *Education and Social Stratification Branch, Population Division, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. 20233.*

The increasing educational attainment of each successive generation (age groups) can be seen in Table 2-A2. Highest percentage of population with 4 years of high school or more are in the age group from 20-34 years of age. Highest proportion of those with 4 or more years of college are found in the age group 25-44 years of age.

In the 25 year old and older population, proportionately more Whites than Blacks have completed high school. Conversely, proportionately more Blacks are high school dropouts. More than three times the proportion of Whites have completed 4 years or more of college than the proportion of Blacks.

U.S. Adults with College Degrees



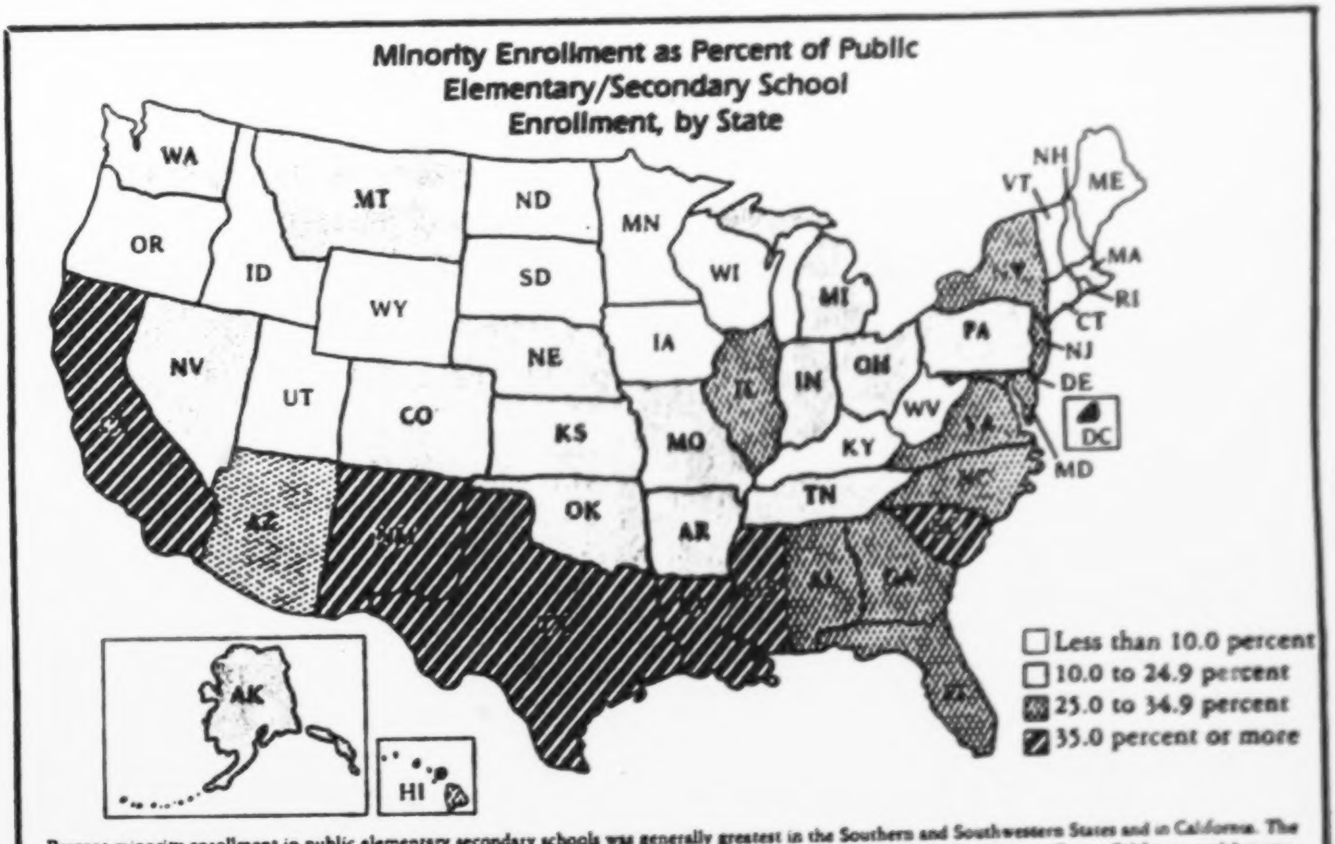
Source: Bureau of Census, "Population Profile of the United States, 1983/84," and unpublished data. Based on adults 25 years and older.

April 1986

B. K-12 Enrollment

Because ethnic-minority persons have a higher rate of population increase than the national and Indiana population as a whole, reflecting higher birth rates and immigration, the representation of Minorities in public elementary and secondary schools is also greatly increasing. Minority representation in public elementary and secondary schools is already high, however, in certain places, as shown in Map 2-B1. Every one of the 25 largest public city school systems in the U.S. now has a "minority majority" of students.[1] One of these 25 is the Indianapolis school system (see Appendix 2-B5).

MAP 2-B1



Minority Enrollment as Percent of Public Elementary/Secondary School Enrollment, by State

Percent minority enrollment in public elementary secondary schools was generally greatest in the Southern and Southwestern States and in California. The percent Black enrollment was highest in the Southern States while the percent Hispanic enrollment was highest in New Mexico, Texas, California, and Arizona.
(*The Condition of Education*, 1984 edition. A Statistical Report by the National Center for Educational Statistics.)

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[1] Harold L. Hodgkinson, "Demographics and the Economy: Understanding a Changing Marketplace." The Admissions Strategist, Jan. 1985.

TABLE 2-B1

INDIANA FALL PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENT BY KEY GRADE LEVELS AND ETHNIC GROUP: 1978, 1984, 2004*

					Minorities					
		Total	White, Non-Hispanic		Total Minority		Black, Non-Hispanic	Hispanic	Native American	Asian & Pac. Isl.
Grade	(Fall) Year	Number (100%)	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
1st	1978	84,025	73,077	86.97%	10,948	13.03%	10.58%	1.89%	.08%	.48%
	1984	76,254	65,289	85.62%	10,965	14.38%	11.77%	1.98%	.08%	.55%
	2004	69,101	56,753	82.13%	12,348	17.87%	NA	NA	NA	NA
8th	1978	87,133	77,695	89.17%	9,438	10.83%	9.07%	1.33%	.19%	.24%
	1984	79,906	70,379	88.08%	9,527	11.92%	9.82%	1.45%	.14%	.52%
	2004	66,027	54,973	83.26%	11,054	16.74%	NA	NA	NA	NA
12th	1978	80,814	73,073	90.42%	7,741	9.58%	8.16%	1.06%	.11%	.25%
	1984	68,646	61,470	89.55%	7,176	10.45%	8.45%	1.38%	.12%	.50%
	2004	58,961	50,539	85.72%	8,422	14.28%	NA	NA	NA	NA

** The projected numbers of students for 2004 are based on birthing patterns.*

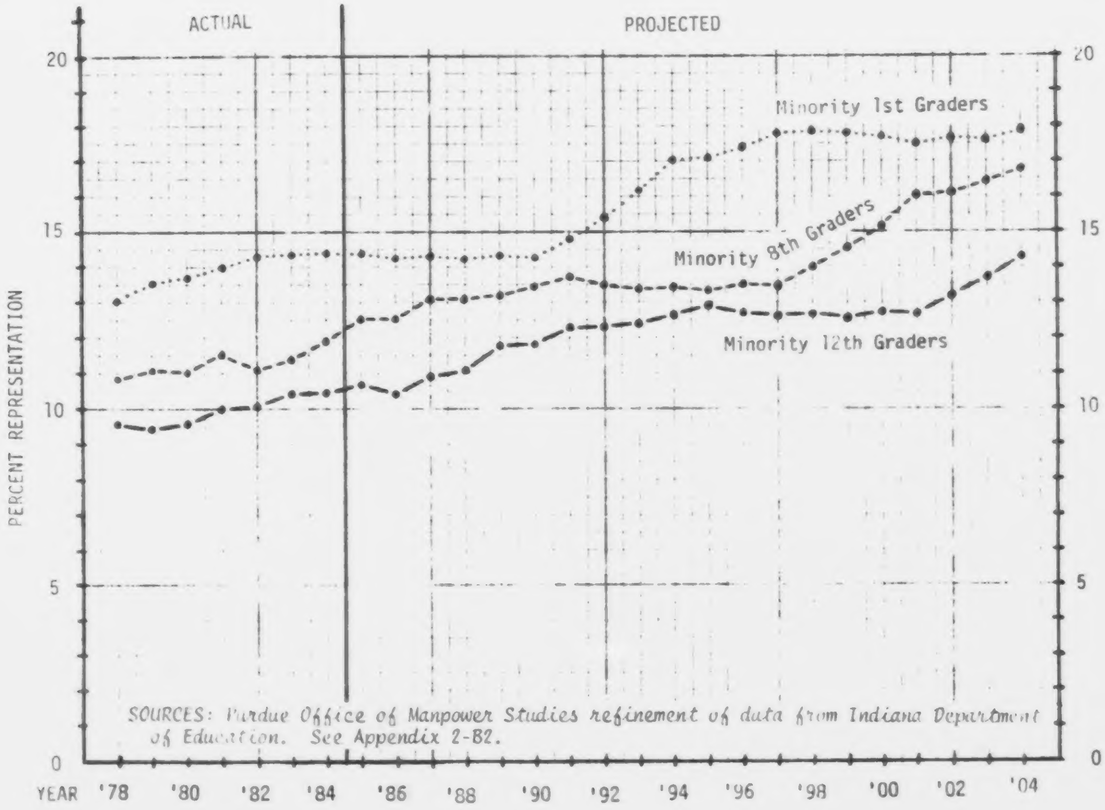
Source: Indiana Dept. of Education EIR-1's for 1978 and 1984. See Appendices 2-B1 and 2-B2 and Figures 2-B1 and 2-B2.

At each grade level, the percentages of Minority students are increasing over time. Significantly, the percentages of Minorities are larger at each lower grade level, indicating the proportion of Minorities will increase as students advance to the higher grades. (Recent birth rates of Minorities continue to be higher than those of Whites, so this upward trend of Minorities will be maintained in the foreseeable future.)

Note that all of the above projections for 1st, 8th and 12th grade students show
(1) A decrease in the total numbers at each grade level
(2) A larger decrease of White students than the total decrease, because of
(3) An increase in the actual numbers of Minority students.

FIGURE 2-B1

MINORITY PERCENTAGE REPRESENTATION,
1st, 8th, & 12th GRADERS: 1978-2004



SOURCES: *Purdue Office of Manpower Studies refinement of data from Indiana Department of Education. See Appendix 2-B2.*

The number of public school students in Indiana has been declining and, with the exception of cyclical periods of retracement, will continue to decline until at least the year 2004. However, the percent of Minority students is projected to increase throughout the foreseeable future. (See Figures 2-B1 and 2-B2 and Appendix 2-B2 for specific data.)

1st grade students numbered slightly more than 80,000 in the fall of 1985. Approximately 85.6 percent were White Non-Hispanic students and about 14.4 percent were Minorities. By the year 2004 the total number of 1st graders in Indiana is expected to decline to about 69,100 of which about 82 percent will be White Non-Hispanics and 18 percent will be Minorities.

8th grade student enrollment was about 75,100 in 1985 of which 87.5 percent were White Non-Hispanics and 15.2 percent were Minorities. By the year 2004, however, the total number of 8th graders will drop to about 66,000, made up of about 83 percent of White Non-Hispanics and 17 percent Minorities.

12th grade student enrollment was about 65,800 in 1985, including 89.3 percent White Non-Hispanics and 10.7 percent Minorities. By 2004, total numbers of 12th graders are expected to decline to about 59,000 of which 86 percent will be White Non-Hispanics and 14 percent will be Minorities.

NOTE: Projections of 1st graders (1985-1990), 8th graders (1985-1997) and 12 graders (1985-2001) are based on the number of actual live births through 1984, with the projected numbers of students for later years based on birthing patterns.

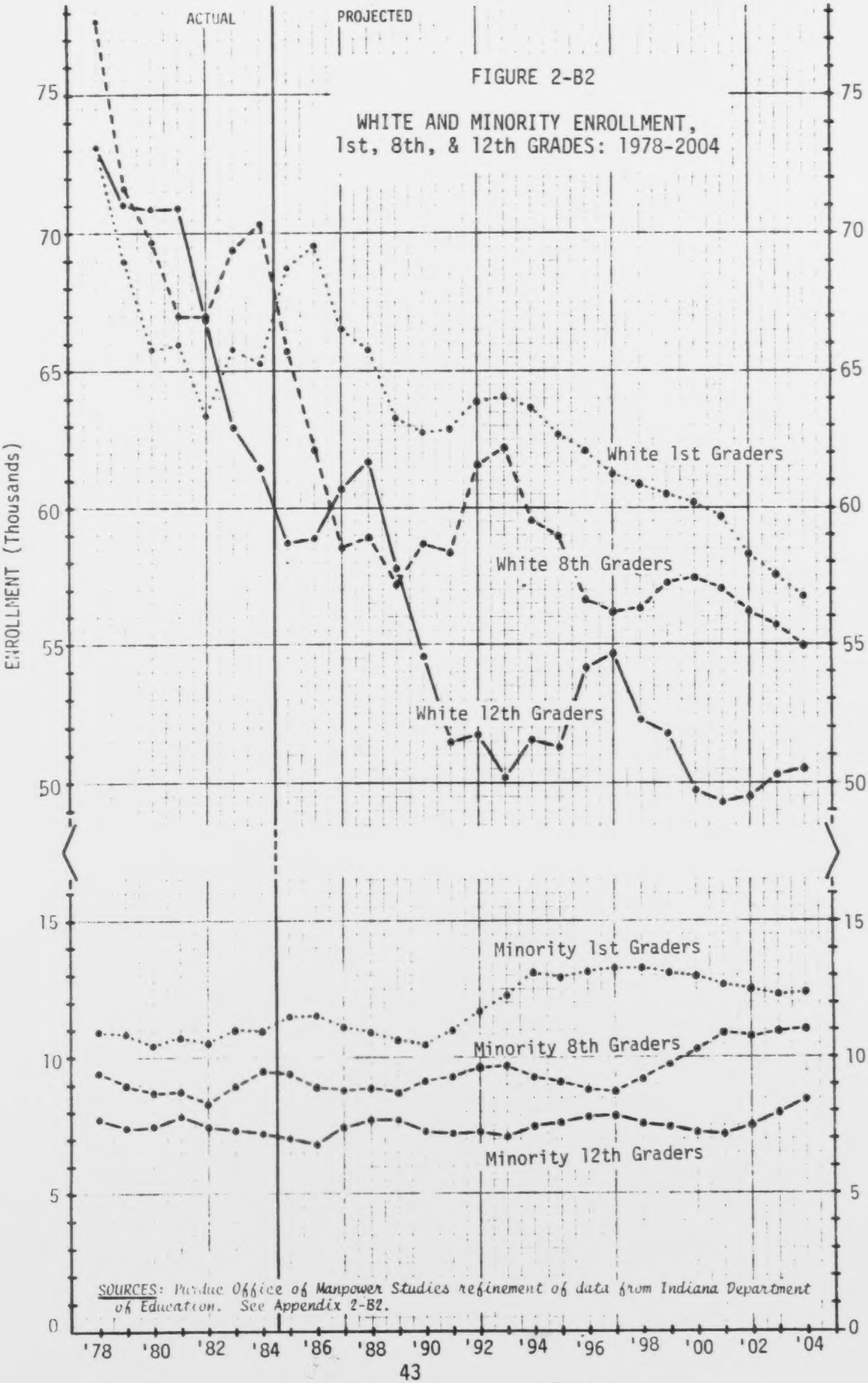


FIGURE 2-B2

WHITE AND MINORITY ENROLLMENT,
1st, 8th, & 12th GRADES: 1978-2004

SOURCES: Purdue Office of Manpower Studies refinement of data from Indiana Department of Education. See Appendix 2-B2.

TABLE 2-B3

STUDENT ENROLLMENT REPRESENTATION OF ETHNIC GROUPS IN GRADES 7-12 FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES: 1978-79 AND 1984-85

Geographical Area	Sch. Year	Total Enrollment (100%)	White		Minority									
					Total Minority		Black		Hispanic		Native Amer.		Asian/Pac.Isl.	
			Enroll.	% of Total	Enroll.	% of Total	Enroll.	% of Total	Enroll.	% of Total	Enroll.	% of Total	Enroll.	% of Total
Indiana	'78	542,513	482,000	88.8%	60,513	11.2%	51,633	9.5%	6,768	1.2%	777	.1%	1,335	.2%
	'84	467,179	411,008	88.0	56,171	12.0%	46,678	10.0%	6,614	1.4%	587	.1%	2,292	.5%
Marion County	'84	56,592	38,775	68.5	17,817	31.5	17,022	30.1	256	.5	47	.1	492	.9
Lake County	'84	44,492	25,939	58.3	18,553	41.7	14,418	32.4	3,847	8.6	78	.2	210	.5
Allen County	'84	22,790	18,855	82.7	3,935	17.3	3,308	14.5	393	1.7	37	.2	197	.9
St. Joseph Co.	'84	18,004	14,731	81.8	3,273	18.2	2,767	15.4	314	1.7	35	.2	157	.9
Vanderburgh Co.	'84	10,633	9,253	87.0	1,380	13.0	1,309	12.3	11	.1	5	.0	55	.5
Madison Co.	'84	12,395	11,196	90.3	1,199	9.7	1,131	9.1	49	.4	-	--	19	.2
LaPorte Co.	'84	9,432	8,320	88.2	1,112	11.8	1,003	10.6	69	.7	2	.0	38	.4
Delaware Co.	'84	10,744	9,842	91.6	902	8.4	842	7.8	15	.1	8	.1	37	.3
Vigo Co.	'84	8,528	7,902	92.7	626	7.3	519	6.1	21	.2	22	.3	64	.8
Elkhart Co.	'84	12,557	11,501	91.6	1,056	8.4	826	6.6	125	1.0	14	.1	91	.7
Grant Co.	'84	7,008	6,252	89.2	756	10.8	573	8.2	119	1.7	16	.2	48	.7
Monroe Co.	'84	6,152	5,962	96.9	190	3.1	89	1.4	20	.3	18	.3	63	1.0
Howard Co.	'84	7,976	7,384	92.6	592	7.4	457	5.7	63	.8	36	.5	36	.5
Clark Co.	'84	7,939	7,376	92.9	563	7.1	497	6.3	19	.2	6	.1	41	.5
Tippecanoe Co.	'84	8,105	7,828	96.6	277	3.4	119	1.5	58	.7	11	.1	89	1.1
Wayne Co.	'84	6,703	6,195	92.4	508	7.6	452	6.7	22	.3	6	.3	28	.4
Floyd Co.	'84	5,356	5,067	94.6	289	5.4	255	4.8	6	.1	17	.3	11	.2
Porter Co.	'84	11,701	11,395	97.4	306	2.6	27	.2	204	1.7	4	.0	71	.6
Miami Co.	'84	4,117	3,834	93.1	283	6.9	110	2.7	36	.9	116	2.8	21	.5
Bartholomew Co.	'84	6,331	6,113	96.6	218	3.4	135	2.1	24	.4	13	.2	46	.7
Johnson Co.	'84	8,432	8,343	98.9	89	1.1	21	.2	37	.4	3	.0	28	.3
Hamilton Co.	'84	9,083	8,995	99.0	88	1.0	25	.3	20	.2	6	.1	37	.4
Total Selected	'78	348,151	289,758	83.2%	58,393	16.8%	50,683	14.6%	5,941	1.7%	667	.2%	1,102	.3%
Counties (22)	'84	295,070	241,058	81.7	54,012	18.3	45,905	15.6	5,728	1.9	500	.2	1,879	.6
Total Non-Sel.	'78	194,362	192,242	98.9%	2,120	1.1%	950	.5%	827	.4%	110	.1%	233	.1%
Counties (70)	'84	172,109	169,950	98.7	2,159	1.3	773	.4	886	.5	87	.1	413	.2

Source: *Indiana Dept. of Education, Division of Educational Information and Research, Oct. 1985. See Appendix 2-B3.*

Total Indiana student enrollment in public school grades 7 through 12 has decreased by 14 percent from about 542,500 in 1978 to 467,200 in 1984. This declining enrollment occurred at twice the rate for Whites (-14.7%) than for Minorities (-7.2%). As a result, the representation of Minorities within the student body has increased from 11.2 percent in 1978 to 12.0 percent in 1984. Also, almost all Minority enrollment decline has occurred for Blacks, while Oriental American enrollment has appreciably increased.

Almost all Minority enrollment (96%) occurs in 22 Indiana counties. In fact, Marion and Lake Counties alone accounted for 65 percent of total Minority Indiana enrollment in 1984 (down from 67% in 1978). Another 13 percent of Minority enrollment occurred in the next two largest counties (Allen and St. Joseph), representing approximately 78 percent of total Minority student enrollment in just four counties. The 22 selected counties are primarily the heavy industry (as well as larger metropolitan) counties within Indiana, and they experienced a 15 percent decline in student enrollment, compared to an 11 percent decline for the remaining, more rural 70 counties. While White enrollment in the 22 counties declined by 17 percent, it declined 12 percent in the other 70 counties. Even more interesting is the eight percent decline of Minority student enrollment in the 22 selected counties, compared to a two percent increase in the other 70 counties (due to Oriental Americans and Hispanics). See Appendix 2-B3 for detailed information for the selected counties.

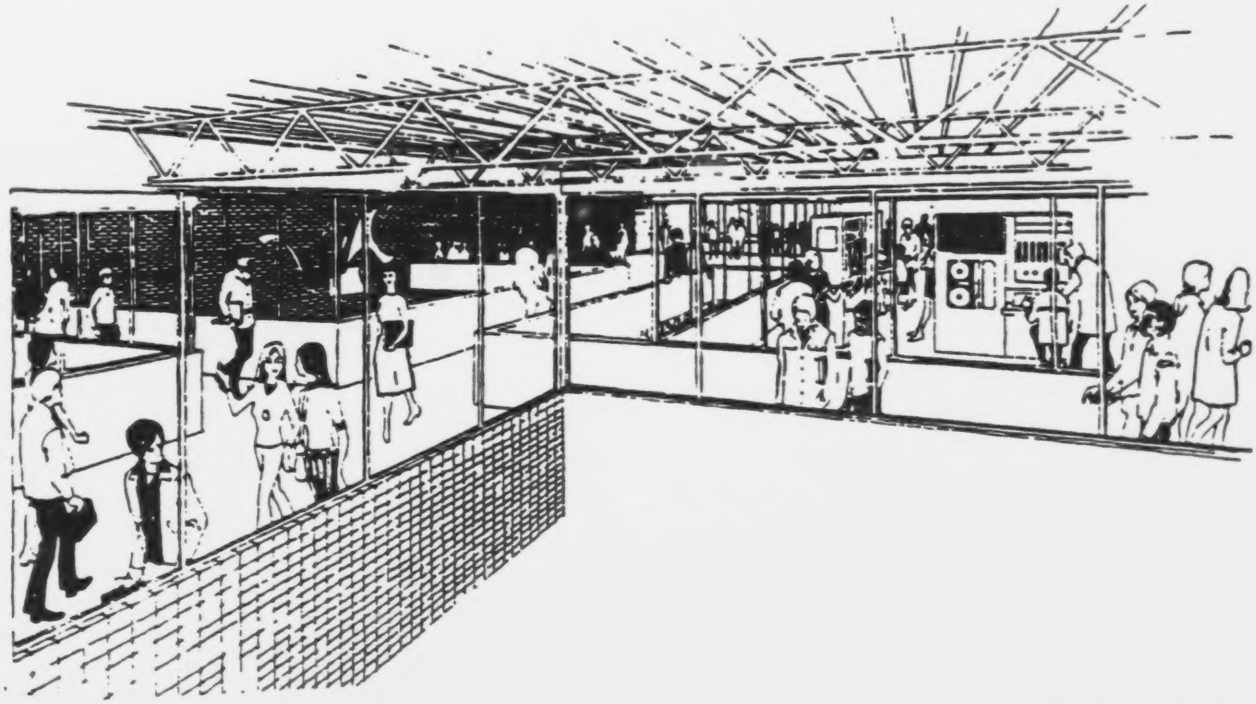


TABLE 2-B4

INDIANA PUBLIC SCHOOL ENROLLMENT BY GRADE LEVEL AND ETHNIC GROUP: FALL 1984

		WHITE Non-Hispanic		MINORITIES				
				Total Minority		Black, Non-Hispanic	Hispanic	Asian Pac. Isl.
Grade Level	TOTAL Number	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
Kindergarten	70,599	61,669	87.35%	8,930	12.65%	10.41%	1.72%	.46%
1	76,254	65,289	85.62	10,965	14.38	11.77	1.98	.55
2	70,887	61,002	86.06	9,885	13.94	11.44	1.84	.61
3	67,241	58,106	86.41	9,135	13.59	10.98	1.91	.63
4	68,373	59,181	86.56	9,192	13.44	10.85	1.88	.64
5	67,305	58,346	86.69	8,959	13.31	10.68	1.87	.66
6	70,594	61,681	87.37	8,913	12.63	10.39	1.56	.58
K-6 Spec.Educ.	13,311	10,050	75.50	3,261	24.50	22.38	1.86	.20
K-6 NonGraded	35	--	--	--	--	--	100.00	--
K-6 Total	504,599	435,324	86.27	69,275	13.73	11.25	1.83	.58
7	76,474	66,896	87.48	9,578	12.52	10.17	1.68	.54
8	79,906	70,379	88.08	9,527	11.92	9.82	1.45	.52
9	82,011	72,171	88.00	9,840	12.00	9.80	1.54	.53
10	75,384	67,035	88.92	8,349	11.08	9.21	1.28	.46
11	71,077	63,194	88.91	7,883	11.09	9.33	1.19	.45
12	68,646	61,470	89.55	7,176	10.45	8.45	1.38	.50
7-12 Spec.Educ.	13,681	9,863	72.09	3,818	27.91	26.58	1.06	.15
7-12 Total	467,179	411,008	87.98	56,171	12.02	9.99	1.42	.49
Total	972,578	846,332	87.02	125,446	12.90	10.63	1.63	.53
Retained Students*	20,483	15,670	76.50	4,813	23.50	19.50	3.56	.33

** Students held back at the same grade level, not advanced to the next level.*

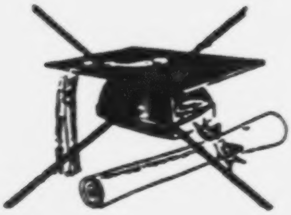
Source: Student enrollment information, school year 1984-85 (EIR-1): Dept. of Public Instruction, Div. of Educational Information and Research. See Appendix 2-B4.

There are increasing proportions of Minorities (especially Blacks) in the earlier grade levels. Academic problems for Blacks are exemplified by high participation in special education (both K-6 and 7-12) and by high proportions not advancing to the next grade level ("retained students"). Academic problems exist as well for Hispanics. Asian & Pac. Isl. students tend to not need special education and to not be retained at same grade levels.

Note: In 1984, 3.8 percent of Minorities (primarily Blacks & Hispanics) were held back from advancing to the next grade level, compared to 1.9 percent of Whites, i.e., twice the proportion. Moreover, 5.6 percent of Minorities were involved in special education, compared to only 2.4 percent of White students.

C. Secondary School Dropout

(1) General Situation



The success of school reform across the nation has caused many of us to focus on a new set of problems. We recognize that school reforms cannot help young people who are not in school, and that more rigorous curricula might discourage some students and cause them to drop out of school. We now must move to meet ... the needs of those who, despite or because of school reform, are ... at greater risk of being lost to society as productive individuals. [(p.2)]...

The problem, simply stated, is this: a growing proportion of our young people are not making successful transitions to productive adult lives. They are paying a heavy price. We, as a society, are paying a heavy price. In the years ahead, the costs are going to get higher.[1] (p.8)

After a Federal Panel in 1983 warned that U.S. schools were wallowing in a rising tide in mediocrity ... state after state raised academic standards. Happily, students' scores on standardized tests began to inch upward. Unhappily, the dropout rate began to grow, too.

... Across the USA, 27 percent of the freshmen don't finish high school. That's up from around 20 percent in the 1970's.

And dropout rates are far worse in the big cities....

Today there are 1 million school-aged youngsters out of school: 700,000 dropouts and 300,000 "Chronic truants." Most dropouts are financially or academically impoverished -- the kids who could benefit most from education.[2] (p.8A)

... We lose them to drugs, to suicide, to unwanted pregnancy and unwed motherhood, to lives of crime, to lives of quiet desperation. They will, research tells us, come to constitute a new permanent underclass. They will occupy the lowest tier in a society once again polarized, once again deeply divided between the privileged and the deprived....[3] (p.8A)

... Leaving school prematurely may cause loss of access to good jobs, reduced lifetime earnings, the risk of more and longer periods of unemployment, and consequent diminution of "quality of life." The consequences to society include reduced economic output, the likelihood of increased demand for unemployment benefits and welfare payments and possible increases in crime and other forms of antisocial behavior. Moreover, the adverse effects of dropping out of school may pass from one generation to another. Dropouts are less likely than high school graduates to provide favorable economic and educational opportunities to their children.[4] (p.3)

Consider: 60 percent of all prison inmates in the USA are high school dropouts....

Each year, dropouts cost taxpayers $75 billion in welfare benefits and lost revenues. If the problem were eradicated tomorrow, our national deficit would be erased by 1989.

Our economic well-being demands an immediate, full-scale assault on the dropout problem. Morality demands the same.[4] (p.3)

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[1] *Business Advisory Commission, Reconnecting Youth: The Next Stage of Reform. Education Commission of the States, Denver, CO., October 1985. See Attachment IX.*

[2] *John C. Quinn & John Seigenthaler, "Do More to Help High School Dropouts." USA Today (Opinion), Tuesday, April 29, 1986, p. 8A*

[3] *Mary Hatwood Futrell, "It's a Tragedy We Cannot Afford." USA Today, Tuesday, April 29, 1986, p. 8A. (Ms. Futrell is President of the National Education Association.)*

[4] *Samuel S. Peng, High School Dropouts: A National Concern. Report to the Business Advisory Commission, Education Commission of the States, March 1985.*

> Dropping out of school unquestionably deprives students of many of the career and economic opportunities that are open to graduates. Most dropouts realize this. Within two years of dropping out, 51% of male and 55% of female dropouts of [High School and Beyond] HS&B's 1980 sophomore cohort reported they felt that leaving school was not a good decision. Within this short period, a substantial number of them participated in some kind of training program outside of regular school...[4] (p.3)

According to William J. Bennett, Secretary of Education,

> providing more incentives to schools to reclaim dropouts may well be the quickest way to keep graduation rates moving in the right direction.
>
> Let's reward schools that work![5] (p.8A)

According to information from the National Center for Education Statistics (see Table 2-C1), dropout rates are higher for Minorities (especially Native Americans) and students from low (or "unknown") socio-economic backgrounds, from urban areas, from the west and the south (also high-Minority areas), from vocational/technical and general high-school programs, and with average or (especially) lower self-reported grades in school.

In a major survey of educators, a profile of high school dropouts has been formulated:

> High school drop-outs have a rather typical profile. They are usually from low-income or proverty settings, often from a minority group background (although not often Asian-American),

TABLE 2-C1

STUDENTS (SOPHOMORES IN 1980) WHO DROPPED OUT BEFORE GRADUATION BY SELECTED BACKGROUND VARIABLES

	Percent		Percent
Race/ethnicity:		**Geographic Region:**	
Native American....	29.2% ▸	Northeast...........	11.3%
Hispanic...........	18.0	North Central........	12.0
Black..............	17.0	South...............	15.2 ▸
White..............	12.2	West................	16.6
Asian American.....	3.1	**High School Program:**	
Socio-economic Status:		Academic............	4.0
High...............	5.2	General.............	12.9
Middle.............	9.0	Vocational-technical.	15.1 ▸
Low................	17.4 ▸	**Self-reported Grade:**	
Unknown............	31.6 ▸	Mostly A's..........	2.9
Community Type:		Mostly B's..........	8.1
Urban..............	18.9 ▸	Mostly C's..........	18.5
Suburban...........	11.8	Mostly D's..........	42.5 ▸
Rural..............	12.8	All Students..........	13.6

Source: *High School and Beyond*, *NCES 83-221b, National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education.*

Reported by Samuel S. Peng, *High School Dropouts: A National Concern. Prepared for the Business Advisory Commission, Education Commission of the States, March 1985, p.8.*

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[5] *William J. Bennett, "Pay Schools a Bounty for Rescuing Dropouts." USA Today, Tuesday, April 29, 1986, p. 8A.*

> have very low basic academic skills, especially reading and math, have parents who are not high school graduates and who are generally uninterested in the child's progress in school, and do not provide a support system for academic progress. English is often not the major language spoken in the home, and many are children of single parents. Dropouts are heavier among males than females -- males tend to leave school to get a job (which usually turns out to be a failure), while females tend to drop out in order to have a child. Drop-outs are generally bored in school, they perceive themselves accurately as failures in the school culture, and are usually very alienated from school.[6]

> Three categories of youth are of major concern:
>
> **The alienated.** These young people are uninterested in or dissatisfied with the values represented by school and work. ... [M]ost alienated students come from the middle classes. Nor is alienation an urban problem; alienated students are everywhere.
>
> **The disadvantaged and alienated.** These young people ... have, in addition, problems associated with being economically disadvantaged. A disproportionate share of these young people are minorities. ... Most of them lack basic social and academic skills. Most lack family support, useful networks and self-esteem. All could make strong contributions to their communities and lead productive adult lives if they got the right help at the right time.
>
> **The disadvantaged.** These young people have family support and motivation to succeed, but they suffer from various effects of economic deprivation and racial discrimination.[7] (pp.9-10)

One widely-held view among the interviewed educators was that intervention occurs too late during a student's development, with certain parts of the profile of the dropout-prone student visible as early as the third grade. "To allow these sores to fester until the eleventh grade is to virtually guarantee that the student will drop out."[7]

> Experienced teachers and administrators can predict which students will most likely drop out even when the students are in the primary grades. ... Disconnection is not a tragedy because it happens; it is a tragedy because many people saw it coming for years and did nothing about it.[7] (p.11)

> Many localities have developed excellent drop-out prevention programs. Particularly useful are the programs which combine intensive, individualized training in the basic skills with work-related projects. Vocational education and work-study strategies seem to work well, as does the "alternative high school" pattern. When the relation between education and work becomes clear, most of these potential drop-outs can be motivated to stay in school and perform at a higher level.
>
> ... More and more sophisticated counselling was mentioned often, as was a variety of efforts to coordinate the work of family, school and social welfare agencies in keeping potential drop-outs in school, and increasing their educational success.
>
> We also discovered a widespread concern that the current state of state-based "reform" legislation will only increase the group of push-outs to be added to the drop-outs. Eliminating low performers from the public school was seen as a way of displacing the problem, not solving it. Out of school, these students present more of a social and economic problem than they do IN schools. If there were other institutions that formed a "safety net" to catch the drop-outs from schools, one might feel differently about it. But no such safety net exists, at least for educational purposes.
>
> ... Key to all of these early intervention programs is some form of home support.[6] (p.8A, underline added)

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[6] *Harold L. Hodgkinson, All One System: Demographics of Education, Kindergarten through Graduate School. The Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc., Washington, D.C., 1985, pp. 11-12.*

[7] *Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, "Planning for the Future." Change, May/June 1985, pp.31-32.*

"Being a dropout is a condition rather than an irreversible attribute."[4] (p.1)

Specific challenges or recommendations for helping potential dropouts have been given by the Business Advisory Commission of the Education Commission of the States[1] and are highlighted in Attachment IX.

In a memorandum to Indiana superintendents and deans of schools of education,[8] Dr. William Strange provided general characteristics of student dropouts:

a. Characteristics related to school experiences

1. Low school marks;
2. Low scholastic aptitude. Low reading and math skills;
3. Over age for grade level;
4. Poor attendance;
5. Pattern of educational deterioration through elementary and secondary schools;
6. Participates very seldom in school activities or sports;
7. Feels alienated and rejected by school and peers;
8. Verbally deficient;
9. Fails to see relevance of education to life experience;
10. Unable to tolerate structured activities;
11. Enrolled in a general course of study rather than vocational education or college preparatory;
12. Has failed at least once in elementary or junior high school years;
13. Lack of basic skills;
14. Disruptive behavior.

b. Characteristics related to home conditions

1. Below average economic status of family;
2. Excessively stressful and unhappy home life;
3. Member of one-parent family;
4. Minimal family solidarity.

c. Characteristics related to personal factors

1. Low emotional and social maturity;
2. Low self concept;
3. Inability to relate to authority figures;
4. Lack of future orientation;
5. Unable to identify with other people;
6. Pregnant;
7. Impulsive in making decisions;
8. Drug abuse.

... d. Other characteristics

1. The educational level of parents of dropouts was lower.
2. Dropouts generally came from larger families.
3. Dropouts were less likely to have attended kindergarten.
4. Dropouts had lower I.Q. scores.
5. Dropouts were more likely to drive a car to school.
6. Dropouts worked more hours per week.
7. Dropouts did not get along well with teachers during more grades than did persisters.

---

[8] William B. Strange, Update on Today's High Schools-Part II (Memorandum). Dept. of Public Instruction, Division of Instructional Services for Research and Assessment, Indianapolis, April 22, 1983, pp. 19-20.

(2) Graduation and Dropout Rates: U.S.

The percentage of people who have graduated from high school has increased dramatically during the century. As shown in Figure 2-Cl, when computed as the percent of the 17-year-old population, graduation rates have increase from 3.5 percent in 1890 to a high of 76.7 percent in 1968. There has occurred a slight decline in graduation rate since then to 71.8 percent in 1981.

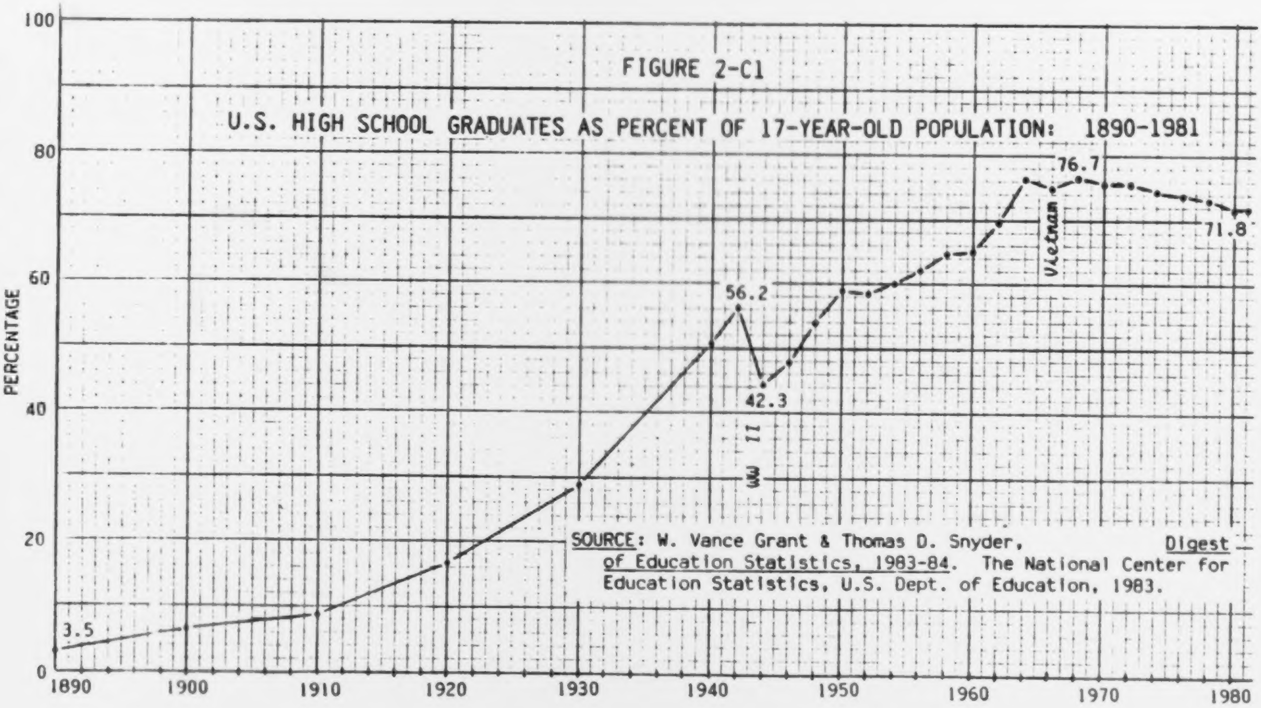


FIGURE 2-C1

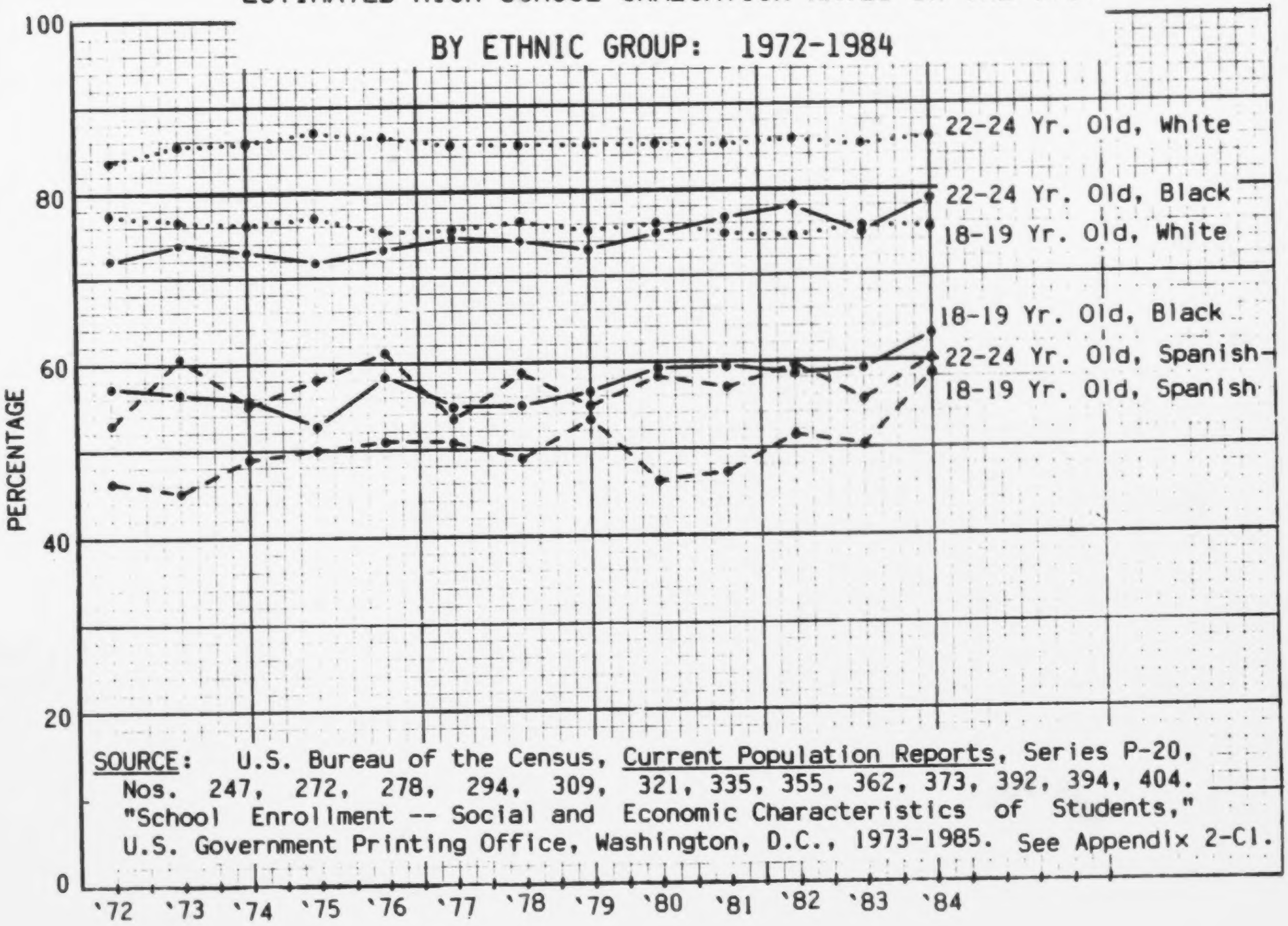
U.S. HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES AS PERCENT OF 17-YEAR-OLD POPULATION: 1890-1981

SOURCE: W. Vance Grant & Thomas D. Snyder, Digest of Education Statistics, 1983-84. The National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Dept. of Education, 1983.

FIGURE 2-C2

ESTIMATED HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATION RATES IN THE U.S.

BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1972-1984



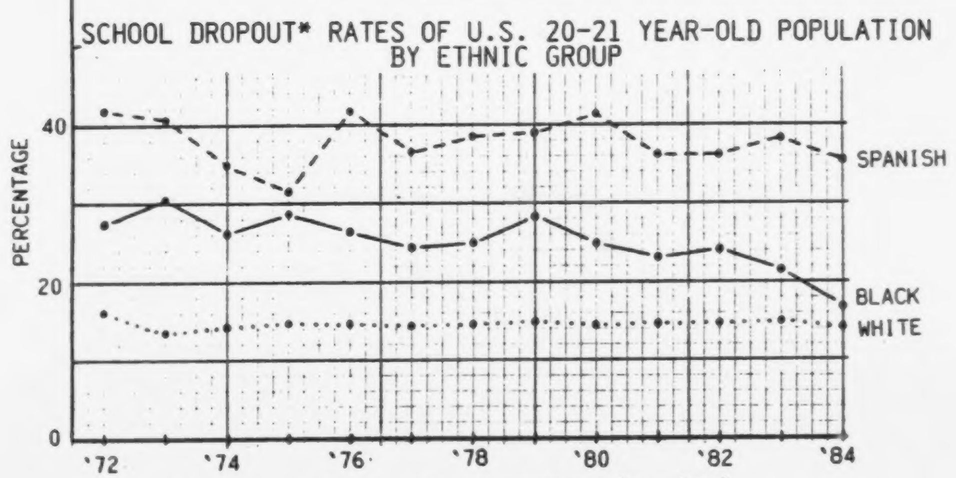
SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Nos. 247, 272, 278, 294, 309, 321, 335, 355, 362, 373, 392, 394, 404. "School Enrollment -- Social and Economic Characteristics of Students," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1973-1985. See Appendix 2-C1.

Of special concern with an increasing proportion of ethnic-minority public school students are their lower graduation rates and higher secondary education dropout rates. Although the graduation rates of Black and Spanish persons seem to have improved slightly since the mid-1970s, these groups' rated are still well below the rate for White students.[17] These differences are shown in Figure 2-C2. While graduation rates of Whites have remained rather constant since 1972, those of Blacks have improved slightly. On the other hand, graduation rates of Spanish persons have been rather unstable.

Also shown in the figure is the tendency for a higher proportion of Blacks than of Whites or Spanish persons to graduate at an older age than the typical age of 17 or 18, which is commonly used in definitions of graduation and dropout rates. Thus, approximately 15 percent of Blacks graduate from high school beyond the typical age, compared with 10 percent of Whites. (Almost all people who do graduate from high school do so by age 25.)

FIGURE 2-C3

SCHOOL DROPOUT* RATES OF U.S. 20-21 YEAR-OLD POPULATION BY ETHNIC GROUP



* Not H.S. graduate and not enrolled in school.

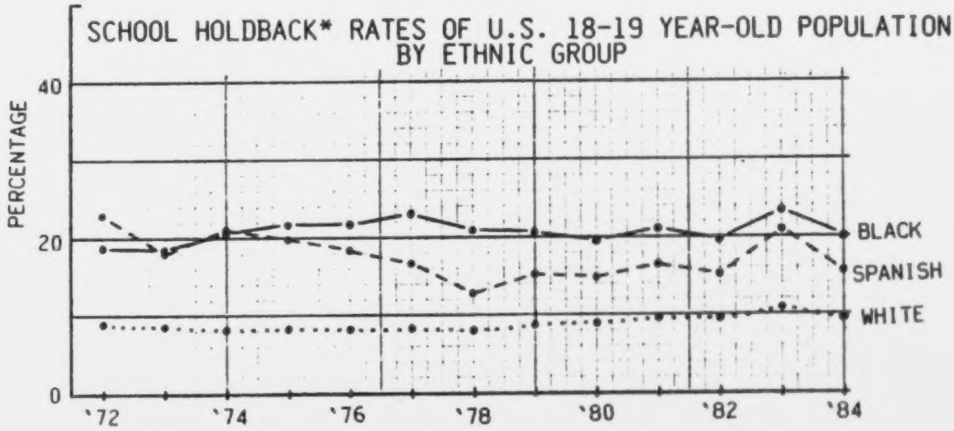
SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Nos. 247, 272, 278, 294, 309, 321, 335, 355, 362, 373, 392, 394, 404. "School Enrollment -- Social and Economic Characteristics of Students," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1973-1985. **See Appendix 2-C1.**

Almost the reverse image of graduation rates are dropout or noncompletion rates (depending upon definitions). According to the 1980 Census (see Figure 2-A2), noncompletion of secondary school is very high for Hispanic students, as well as for Black and Native American students. And according to Secretary Bennett, dropout rates among Black, Hispanic, and inner-city children is often as high as 50 percent.[5] The stark ethnic-group differences are evident in Table 2-C1 and in Figure 2-C3, which also shows a slight decline in dropout rates for Blacks. Dropout rates for Native Americans tend to be the highest.[4]

In addition to graduation and dropout rates, a high school education issue that is often overlooked or ignored is that of holding students back one or more grade levels rather than promoting them. This is also especially important to the present study because Minority students (except for Asian Americans as a group) are more likely to be held back at a grade level rather than being promoted to the next one along with their class.[5] This, as shown in Figure 2-C4, is especially true with Black students.

FIGURE 2-C4

SCHOOL HOLDBACK* RATES OF U.S. 18-19 YEAR-OLD POPULATION BY ETHNIC GROUP



* Still enrolled in school (below college level).

SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Nos. 247, 272, 278, 294, 309, 321, 335, 355, 362, 373, 392, 394, 404. "School Enrollment -- Social and Economic Characteristics of Students," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1973-1985. **See Appendix 2-C1.**

(3) Graduation and Dropout Rates: Indiana

Graduation and dropout trends in Indiana have tended to parallel those in the U.S. in general. Since 1974, graduation and dropout rates in Indiana have vacillated with little, if any, change (see Table 2-C2). The four-year graduation rate peaked in 1983 at 78.3 percent but has since decreased (in consonance with Indiana's recession and recovery) to an estimated 74.5 percent for Spring 1986.

Calculating non-graduation rates (1-graduation rate) yields approximately 25 percent of students who do not complete high school in four years. Yearly dropout rates have tended to be highest for the 11th grade and next highest for the 10th grade. That is, most students who drop out of high school do so before reaching their senior year.

Information is also available concerning annual dropout data by year, class standing and ethnic group for total 7th through 12th grade enrollment.

TABLE 2-C2
ENROLLMENT AND 4TH-YEAR GRADUATION RATES OF INDIANA PUBLIC SCHOOL STUDENTS ENTERING THE 9TH GRADE: 1970-71 - 1982-83
(REGULAR STUDENTS)

Beginning Year (9th Gr.): Year	'70-'71	'71-'72	'72-'73	'73-'74	'74-'75	'75-'76	'76-'77	'77-'78	'78-'79	'79-'80	'80-'81	'81-'82	'82-'83
Fall Enrollment	98,409	101,509	100,905	101,147	99,654	100,816	98,903	97,491	96,460	90,056	83,966	81,331	78,470
Spring Withdrawal: Percent of Enr.	3.25%	3.24%	4.03%	4.39%	4.32%	4.01%	4.55%	5.01%	5.34%	5.25%	5.36%	5.04%	5.33%
2nd Year (10th Gr.):													
Fall Enrollment	93,788	95,863	95,724	95,679	95,591	96,453	94,659	92,794	90,964	85,106	79,967	77,018	74,918
Adj. Enrollment[1]	93,788	95,863	95,724	95,679	95,346	96,453	94,398	92,618	90,964	85,106	79,469	77,018	74,293
Spring Withdrawal: Percent of Enr.	6.43%	7.48%	8.30%	7.78%	8.01%	8.15%	8.71%	8.75%	8.43%	7.95%	7.65%	7.51%	7.43%
3rd Year (11th Gr.):													
Fall Enrollment	86,298	88,737	87,633	89,316	88,935	90,133	87,455	85,346	85,034	79,625	74,946	73,115	71,077
Adj. Enrollment[1]	86,298	88,689	87,633	88,231	87,709	88,595	86,170	84,507	83,293	78,411	73,391	71,231	68,774
Spring Withdrawal: Percent of Enr.	8.24%	8.78%	8.17%	8.33%	8.60%	9.30%	10.03%	8.09%	8.22%	7.74%	8.01%	7.92%	9.16%
4th Year (12th Gr.):													
Fall Enrollment	78,088	79,466	79,955	81,026	80,405	80,814	78,435	78,306	78,754	74,377	70,246	68,646	66,223
Adj. Enrollment[1]	78,088	79,466	79,955	80,081	80,166	80,360	77,534	76,994	76,449	73,461	67,513	65,591	62,473
Spring Withdrawal: Percent of Enr.	5.51%	5.08%	5.27%	5.30%	5.96%	5.00%	5.55%	4.92%	4.76%	4.06%	5.08%	6.25%	5.99%[3]
Graduation Rate:													
Regular Graduates	73,377	74,906	75,481	76,406	74,554	75,102	73,143	73,381	73,904	70,549	65,710	63,308	NA
Adj. Graduates[1]	73,377	74,906	75,481	76,406	74,554	75,102	73,143	73,286	73,904	70,549	63,598	61,492	NA
Rate[2]	74.6%	73.8%	74.8%	75.5%	74.8%	74.6%	74.0%	75.1%	76.7%	78.3%	75.7%	75.6%	74.5%[3]
Year	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986

[1] Minimum of Fall Enrollment (or Graduates) and, for previous year, [1-Withdr. Rate] x Adj. Enrollment.
[2] Ratio (as percent) of Adjusted Graduates to 9th Grade Fall Enrollment.
[3] Estimated by Office of Manpower Studies.

SOURCES: Indiana Department of Education and Indiana Employment Security Division. See Appendix 2-C2.

NOTE: Circumstances not reflected in the above table:
Positive: (1) Re-enrollment of students after dropping out, (2) moving and attending school out-of-state, (3) attending private schools
Negative: Summer (between school year) dropouts -- not reported in table.

TABLE 2-C3

YEARLY WITHDRAWAL OF STUDENTS FROM GRADES 7-12* BY GRADE LEVEL FOR INDIANA: 1978-79 - 1984-85

(ALTERNATE YEARS SHOWN.)

	1978-79	1980-81	1982-83	1984-85
All Grade Groups				
# of Dropouts	28,237	23,001	18,483	20,680
# Enrollment	540,939	501,213	471,836	461,445
% Drop's of Enroll.	5.2%	4.6%	3.9%	4.5%
7th & 8th Grades				
# of Dropouts	1,999	1,499	1,691	2,712
# Enrollment	168,683	155,316	153,931	154,461
% Drop's of Enroll.	1.2%	1.0%	1.1%	1.8%
9th & 10th Grades				
# of Dropouts	12,559	10,630	8,247	9,014
# Enrollment	188,705	168,685	154,233	155,463
% Drop's of Enroll.	6.7%	6.3%	5.3%	5.8%
11th & 12th Grades				
# of Dropouts	12,806	10,094	7,850	8,142
# Enrollment	167,781	162,968	148,110	138,008
% Drop's of Enroll.	7.6%	6.2%	5.3%	5.9%
7-12th Special Educ.				
# of Dropouts	773	770	691	806
# Enrollment	15,416	13,997	15,497	13,513
% Drop's of Enroll.	5.0%	5.5%	4.5%	6.0%

*Excludes "Other" non-school related reasons, such as death, moving out-of-state, not enrolling in current school year (i.e., withdrawal after previous school year).

Note: Indiana state law mandates that students may not voluntarily leave school until their 16th birthday.

Source: Student dropout data (EIR-6 Tabulations), Indiana Dept of Education, Division of Educational Information & Research, 1985. See Appendix 2-C3.

During the 1984-85 school year there were 20,680 dropouts from public school grades 7 through 12 for reasons other than death, moving out-of-state or not enrolling in the new shool year. This indicates a dropout rate of 4.5 percent of the 461,445 enrollment during this period. This dropout rate is an increase over previous school years since 1981-82 and represents a reversal of a previously decreasing rate.

The dropout of students has tended to occur either during the 11th and 12th grades or during the 9th and 10th grades (see Table 2-C3), accounting for over 80 percent of all 7th through 12th grade dropouts. During the 1984-85 school year, only 1.8 percent of 7th and 8th graders dropped out (compared to almost 6% of all 7th through 12th graders) and accounted for only one of eight dropouts. However, dropout rate and representation has almost doubled for 7th and 8th graders since the 1980-81 school year.

Assuming (a) the dropouts have not and will not re-enroll in public secondary schools and (b) constant annual dropout rates suggests that approximately 21.4 percent of students entering the 9th grade in 1984 will not complete high school in four years.

TABLE 2-C4

YEARLY WITHDRAWAL OF STUDENTS FROM GRADES 7-12[1] BY ESTIMATED ABILITY LEVEL[2] FOR INDIANA: 1978-79 - 1984-85

(ALTERNATE YEARS SHOWN.)

All Ability Groups	1978-79	1980-81	1982-83	1984-85
# of Dropouts	28,237	23,001	18,483	20,680
# Enrollment	540,939	501,213	471,836	461,445
% Drop's of Enroll.	5.2%	4.6%	3.9%	4.5%
6-Yr. Dropout Rate[3]	27.4%	24.6%	21.2%	24.1%
Upper 25% of Class				
# of Dropouts	650	537	615	810
# Enrollment	135,235	125,303	117,959	115,361
% Drop's of Enroll.	.5%	.4%	.5%	.7%
6-Yr. Dropout Rate	3.0%	2.4%	3.0%	4.1%
Upper 50% of Class				
# of Dropouts	3,282	2,715	2,545	3,257
# Enrollment	270,470	250,606	235,918	230,722
% Drop's of Enroll.	1.2%	1.1%	1.1%	1.4%
6-Yr. Dropout Rate	7.0%	6.4%	6.4%	8.1%
Lower 25% of Class				
# of Dropouts	17,581	13,967	10,701	11,925
# Enrollment	135,235	125,303	117,959	115,361
% Drop's of Enroll.	13.0%	11.1%	9.1%	10.3%
6-Yr. Dropout Rate	56.6%	50.6%	43.6%	47.9%

[1] *Excludes "Other" non-school related reasons, which includes death, moving out-of-state, not enrolling in current school year (i.e., withdrawal after previous school year).*

[2] *Estimated class rank.*

[3] *Compounded.*

Source: Student Dropout Data (EIR-6 Tabulations), Indiana Dept. of Education, Division of Educational Information & Research, 1985. See Appendix 2-C4.

During the 1984-85 school year, students in the upper 25 percent of their class (estimated) had a dropout rate of only 0.7 percent (which compounds to only a 4.1% dropout rate over the six years) and accounted for only 4 percent of all dropouts (see Table 2-C4). This compares with a dropout rate of 10.3 percent for the lowest 25-percent students, which compounds to almost a 48 percent dropout rate over six years and accounts for over half of all dropouts. However, the dropout rate and representation has been increasing for the top 25-percent students since the 1980-81 school year, while the reverse has generally been true for the lowest 25-percent students (except for the 1984-85 school year).

The increase in the annual dropout rate over previous school years since 1981-1982 (a reversal of previously decreasing rates) is true for both Whites and Minorities (see Table 2-C5).

TABLE 2-C5

YEARLY STUDENT WITHDRAWAL FROM GRADES 7-12[1] FOR INDIANA BY ETHNIC GROUP[2]: 1978-79 TO 1984-85

(ALTERNATE YEARS SHOWN.)

	1978-79	1980-81	1982-83	1984-85
All Ethnic Groups				
# of Dropouts	28,237	12,001	18,483	20,680
# Enrollment	540,939	501,213	471,836	461,445
% Drop's of Enroll	5.2%	4.6%	3.9%	4.5%
*Comp. 6-Yr. Dropout Rate	27.4%	24.6%	21.2%	24.1%
White, NonHispanic				
# of Dropouts	23,504	18,899	15,259	17,055
# Enrollment	480,584	444,456	416,760	405,963
% Drop's of Enroll	4.9%	4.3%	3.7%	4.2%
Comp. 6-Yr. Dropout Rate	26.0%	23.2%	20.2%	22.7%
Total Minority				
# of Dropouts	4,733	4,102	3,224	3,625
# of Enrollment	60,455	56,757	55,076	55,482
% Drop's of Enroll	7.8%	7.2%	5.9%	6.5%
Comp. 6-Yr. Dropout Rate	38.6%	36.1%	30.6%	33.2%
Black, NonHispanic				
# of Dropouts	3,392	3,464	2,655	2,827
# of Enrollment	51,490	48,017	46,273	46,105
% Drop's of Enroll	7.6%	7.2%	5.7%	6.1%
Comp. 6-Yr. Dropout Rate	37.8%	36.1%	29.7%	31.5%
Hispanic				
# of Dropouts	684	467	474	576
# of Enrollment	6,748	6,403	6,158	6,533
% Drop's of Enroll.	10.1%	7.3%	7.7%	8.8%
Comp. 6-Yr. Dropout Rate	47.2%	36.5%	38.2%	42.5%
Native American				
# of Dropouts	28	133	31	145
# of Enrollment	775	709	651	580
% Drop's of Enroll.	3.6%	18.8%	4.8%	25.0%
Comp. 6-Yr. Dropout Rate	19.7%	71.3%	25.6%	82.2%
Asian & Pac. Islander				
# of Dropouts	88	39	65	77
# of Enrollment	1,331	1,627	1,995	2,264
% Drop's of Enroll.	6.6%	2.4%	3.3%	3.4%
Comp. 6-Yr. Dropout Rate	33.6%	13.6%	18.2%	18.7%

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[1] Excludes "Other" non-school related reasons, such as death, moving out-of-state, not enrolling in current school year (i.e., withdrawal after previous school year).

[2] Ethnic group numbers may not add up to totals because of missing data.

Source: Student Dropout Data (EIR-6 Tabulations), Indiana Dept. of Education, Division of Educational Information & Reasearch, 1985. See Appendix 2-C5.

* "Comp." is Compounded

It should be noted that the dropout rate for Minorities (especially Hispanics) has been markedly higher than the rate for Whites. The one exception is that the dropout rate for Asians and Pacific Islanders has tended to be lower than that of other Minorities or of Whites. Assuming (a) the dropouts have not and will not re-enroll in public secondary schools and (b) constant annual dropout rates suggests that approximately 31 percent and 42 percent, respectively, of Black and Hispanic Students entering the 7th grade in 1984 will not complete high school in six years, compared with 23 percent of White Students. Unless something is done to correct the higher dropout rates of certain Minorities, the overall State rate will go up as the numbers and proportions of Minorities continue to increase over time.

Considering all reasons for withdrawing from Public Schools in Indiana, student withdrawal from grades 7 through 12 during the 1984-85 school year was 5.7 percent of beginning school year enrollment (see Table 2-C6). It was 5.3 percent for White students and 8.2 percent for all Minority students. These percentages represent an upper estimate of student withdrawal for several reasons: (a) enrollment numbers do not reflect mid-year school enrollment, (b) enrollment and withdrawal numbers include students who withdrew for reasons of questionable relevance (e.g., death, out-of-state transfer, transfer to nonpublic schools), and (c) withdrawal numbers do not reflect the number of students who later re-enroll.

The 1984-85 withdrawal rate was a slight increase from the percent withdrawal of 1978-79, along with a major reduction in student enrollment. During the intervening years, (a) the withdrawal rate increase is attributable to Whites, Hispanics and Native Americans, (b) the reduction in enrollment is attributable to Whites, Blacks and Native Americans, and (c) Asian Americans exhibited increased enrollment and reduced withdrawal.

The 22 counties selected, whose Minority population was at least 1000 (consisting of the primary industrial centers of Indiana), exhibited higher withdrawal rates than the remaining 70 (primarily rural) counties (see Appendix 2-C6). (a) Withdrawal rates in the selected counties were higher for Whites, Blacks, and Asian Americans but (b) lower for Hispanics and Native Americans than the rates in the nonselected counties.

While both selected and nonselected counties exhibited decreased enrollment from 1978-79 to 1984-85, withdrawal rates for the selected counties increased slightly (for Whites, Hispanics and Native Americans, compared to reduced rates for Asian Americans and Blacks), but withdrawal rates of the nonselected counties decreased slightly (for Whites, Hispanics and Asian Americans, compared to increased rates for Native Americans and Blacks).

Selected Counties with high withdrawal rates included Clark, Grant, Wayne, Elkhart, Marion, St. Joseph, Monroe, LaPorte and Delaware. Selected Counties with low withdrawal rates included Floyd, Tippecanoe, Porter, Hamilton and Miami.

TABLE 2-C6
STUDENT WITHDRAWAL* FROM GRADES 7-12 BY ETHNIC GROUP, INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES: 1978-1979 & 1984-1985

Geographical Area	Sch. Year	Total			White			Minority Total			Black			Hispanic			Native American			Asian & Pacific Islander		
		Enrollment	Withdr.	%	Enroll.	Withdr.	%	Enroll.	Withdr.	%	Enroll.	Withdr.	%	Enroll.	WithDr.	%	Enroll.	Withdr.	%	Enroll.	Withdr.	%
Indiana	'78	542,513	29,831	5.5%	482,000	24,831	5.2%	60,513	5,000	8.3%	51,633	4,154	8.0%	6,760	723	10.7%	777	30	3.9%	1,335	93	7.0%
	'84	467,179	26,414	5.7%	411,008	21,784	5.3%	56,171	4,630	8.2%	46,678	3,611	7.7%	6,614	736	11.1%	587	185	31.5%	2,292	98	4.3%
Marion County	'84	56,592	4,291	7.6%	38,775	2,892	7.4%	17,817	1,399	7.9%	17,022	1,350	7.9%	256	21	8.2%	47	5	10.6%	492	15	3.0%
Lake	'84	44,492	2,703	6.1%	25,939	1,280	4.9%	18,553	1,423	7.7%	14,418	1,009	6.9%	3,847	403	10.4%	78	1	1.2%	210	10	4.7%
Allen	'84	22,790	1,282	5.6%	18,855	1,048	5.5%	3,935	234	5.9%	3,308	191	5.7%	393	35	8.9%	37	2	5.4%	197	6	3.0%
St. Joseph	'84	18,004	1,305	7.2%	14,731	922	6.2%	3,273	383	11.7%	2,767	276	9.9%	314	37	11.7%	35	33	94.2%	157	37	23.5%
Vanderburgh	'84	10,633	652	6.1%	9,253	515	5.5%	1,380	137	9.9%	1,309	137	10.4%	11	0	.0%	5	0	.0%	55	0	.0%
Madison County	'84	12,395	744	6.0%	11,196	640	5.7%	1,199	104	8.7%	1,131	83	7.3%	49	20	40.8%	-	-	--	19	1	5.2%
LaPorte	'84	9,432	660	7.0%	8,320	562	6.7%	1,112	98	8.8%	1,003	88	8.7%	69	10	14.4%	2	0	.0%	38	0	.0%
Delaware	'84	10,744	709	6.6%	9,842	624	6.3%	902	85	9.4%	842	74	8.7%	15	9	60.0%	8	1	12.5%	37	1	2.7%
Vigo	'84	8,528	498	5.8%	7,902	476	6.0%	626	22	3.5%	519	21	4.0%	21	0	.0%	22	0	.0%	64	1	1.5%
Elkhart	'84	12,557	984	7.8%	11,501	854	7.4%	1,056	130	12.3%	826	99	11.9%	125	22	17.6%	14	5	35.7%	91	4	4.3%
Grant County	'84	7,008	557	7.9%	6,252	445	7.1%	756	112	14.8%	573	78	13.6%	119	31	26.0%	16	1	6.2%	48	2	4.1%
Monroe	'84	6,152	442	7.2%	5,962	412	6.9%	190	30	15.8%	89	21	23.5%	20	6	30.0%	18	1	5.5%	63	2	3.1%
Howard	'84	7,976	418	5.2%	7,384	384	5.2%	592	34	5.7%	457	18	3.9%	63	16	25.3%	36	0	.0%	36	0	.0%
Clark	'84	7,939	721	9.1%	7,376	672	9.1%	563	49	8.7%	497	45	9.0%	19	4	21.0%	6	0	.0%	41	0	.0%
Tippecanoe	'84	8,105	336	4.1%	7,828	319	4.0%	277	17	6.1%	119	10	8.4%	50	5	8.6%	11	1	9.0%	89	1	1.1%
Wayne County	'84	6,703	527	7.9%	6,195	477	7.6%	508	50	9.8%	452	48	10.6%	22	1	4.5%	6	1	16.6%	28	0	.0%
Floyd	'84	5,356	208	3.9%	5,067	183	3.6%	289	25	8.7%	255	10	3.9%	6	0	.0%	17	15	88.2%	11	0	.0%
Porter	'84	11,701	477	4.1%	11,395	468	4.1%	306	9	2.9%	27	2	7.4%	204	4	1.9%	4	2	50.0%	71	1	1.4%
Miami	'84	4,117	175	4.3%	3,834	163	4.2%	283	12	4.2%	110	1	.9%	36	5	13.8%	116	6	5.1%	21	0	.0%
Bartholomew	'84	6,331	344	5.4%	6,113	340	5.5%	218	4	1.8%	135	3	2.2%	24	1	4.1%	13	0	.0%	46	0	.0%
Johnson County	'84	8,432	484	5.7%	8,343	482	5.7%	89	2	2.2%	21	0	.0%	37	1	2.7%	3	1	33.3%	28	0	.0%
Hamilton	'84	9,083	382	4.2%	8,995	372	4.1%	88	10	11.4%	25	1	4.0%	20	9	45.0%	6	0	.0%	37	0	.0%
Total Selected Counties (22)	'78	348,151	20,848	6.0%	289,758	16,057	5.5%	58,393	4,791	8.2%	50,683	4,128	8.1%	5,941	560	9.4%	667	22	3.3%	1,102	81	7.4%
	'84	295,070	18,899	6.4%	241,058	14,530	6.0%	54,012	4,369	8.1%	45,905	3,573	7.8%	5,728	640	11.2%	508	75	15.0%	1,879	81	4.3%
Total Non-Selected Counties (70)	'78	194,362	8,983	4.6%	192,242	8,774	4.6%	2,120	209	9.9%	958	26	2.7%	827	163	19.7%	110	8	7.3%	233	12	5.2%
	'84	172,109	7,515	4.4%	169,950	7,254	4.3%	2,159	261	12.1%	773	38	4.9%	886	96	10.8%	87	110	126.4%	413	17	4.1%

***Includes all reasons for withdrawal.**

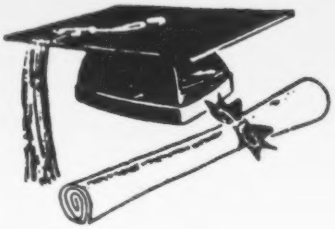
Note 1. Enrollment numbers are obtained in September of the school year; withdrawal numbers are obtained during the following May of the same school year.

Note 2. Numbers are not available to reflect possible readmittance of students during a later school year.

SOURCE: Indiana Dept. of Education, Division of Educational Information and Research, October 1985. See Appendix 2-C6.

D. College Enrollment

(1) General Situation



> Job requirements are changing and a more highly educated work force is necessary if Indiana is to be competitive in attracting and retaining desirable industries. Thus, increased and more effective participation in postsecondary education is critical to the future economic and social well-being of Indiana....
>
> Indiana's manufacturing industries, which are hiring more and more at the technician level, are projecting that technician training will have to be upgraded to the bachelor's level within five years. Another essential educational task is the upgrading of current members of the workforce. ... As minorities become a large percentage of the Indiana work force, the education of minorities in Indiana becomes increasingly important for the future economic and social vitality of the state.[1] (pp. 5,19)

"The country will face a severe shortage of trained manpower in coming years if minorities fail to get college-level educations."[2] (p.20)

> Changing the involvement of minorities in higher education is more than simply removing obstacles to access. It must begin with a virtual revolution in early childhood education and greatly enriched performance in the elementary and secondary schools. We must face the truth: the quality of the early school years is critical to later academic and career choice. Moreover, we must encourage participation in traditionally underrepresented disciplines and professions, especially the scientific and technical fields -- biological and physical sciences, computer science and engineering, mathematics and business -- each of which will play a vital role in the technology-driven economy of the future....
>
> In the emerging technology - information age, knowledge is a valuable commodity with direct economic benefits. But we face a danger in this new age that structural changes in the economy will create a stratum of low-pay, low-skill jobs requiring little knowledge and education, and a second stratum of high-skill and high-pay jobs requiring advanced education and knowledge. The challenge is to lift educational levels in America in order to realize more fully the potential of all our citizens.[3] (p.24, underline added)

Participation in postsecondary education is especially critical for Indiana which seems to be experiencing a net loss of college-bound students. That is, for every 10 Indiana residents going on to college, there are only 9 total students (Indiana and non-Indiana) enrolled in Indiana institutions. And students who leave Indiana to attend college tend to not return after college graduation to work in Indiana.

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[1] *Indiana Commission for Higher Education,* *Annual Report* *(Draft), Indianapolis, IN, March 1986.*

[2] *Dorothy Gilliam, "A Minority Brain Drain."* *Black Issues in Higher Education*, *Feb. 15, 1986, Vol.* 2 *(No.15), p. 20.*

[3] *Stanley O. Ikenberry, "Minority Participation in Higher Education: A New Vision."* *Black Issues in Higher Education*, *Dec. 15, 1985, p.24. (Mr. Ikenberry is President of the University of Illinois.)*

Many important phenomena are occurring.

> ... Some in higher education have prepared for a decline in numbers of high school graduates, but no preparation has been made for a change in the ethnic composition of today's public school students, and tomorrow's college students.
>
> In addition to these changes, major changes are taking place in the nature of the American family that directly affect the youth and adults who are entering higher education in the next decade.... [T]he student who reaches 18 while living with his or her original two parents will be unusual. While the data are not yet unequivocal, there is reason to believe that many single-parent children are having major difficulties in school, both in terms of academic achievement and social development. Changes in the family structure have triggered the return of many adult women to college campuses.... A major increase in the applicants pool will come from minorities, some of whom will be excellent students and many of whom will need both financial and academic assistance.[4] (pp. 4,5,6)

> More and more state officials believe ... state governments must develop new recruitment and scholarship programs for students from minority groups and pay more attention to whether the programs run by colleges actually help such students. [p.1]...
>
> State leaders should realize that they have financial incentives to provide more funds for minority-group students, says Reginald Wilson, director of the American Council on Education's Office of Minority Concerns. "If we don't educate them, they will be an increasing burden on state coffers later with welfare costs. The states will wind up paying for it anyway."...
>
> The growing minority populations have also forced private colleges to become more concerned with state policies to improve the elementary and secondary education of young people in inner cities....
>
> ... [S]tate boards should give financial rewards to colleges that successfully recruit and retain students from minority-groups. Only a handful of states now give financial bonuses for such efforts....
>
> Although the federal government can evaluate colleges' compliance with civil-rights laws, states are better suited to push colleges to do more than the law requires them to do, says William Shaw, a member of the Illinois House of Representatives Higher Education Committee.
>
> "We have too many colleges operating like treadmills. They bring the kids in, don't help them, and shoot them right back out again," Mr. Shaw says.
>
> State agencies "can look at a college and say, 'These are the programs you need, and we expect you to get them,'" he adds.[5] (p.14)

"If we don't educate them, they will be an increasing burden on state coffers later with welfare costs. The states will wind up paying for it anyway."...[5] (p.14)

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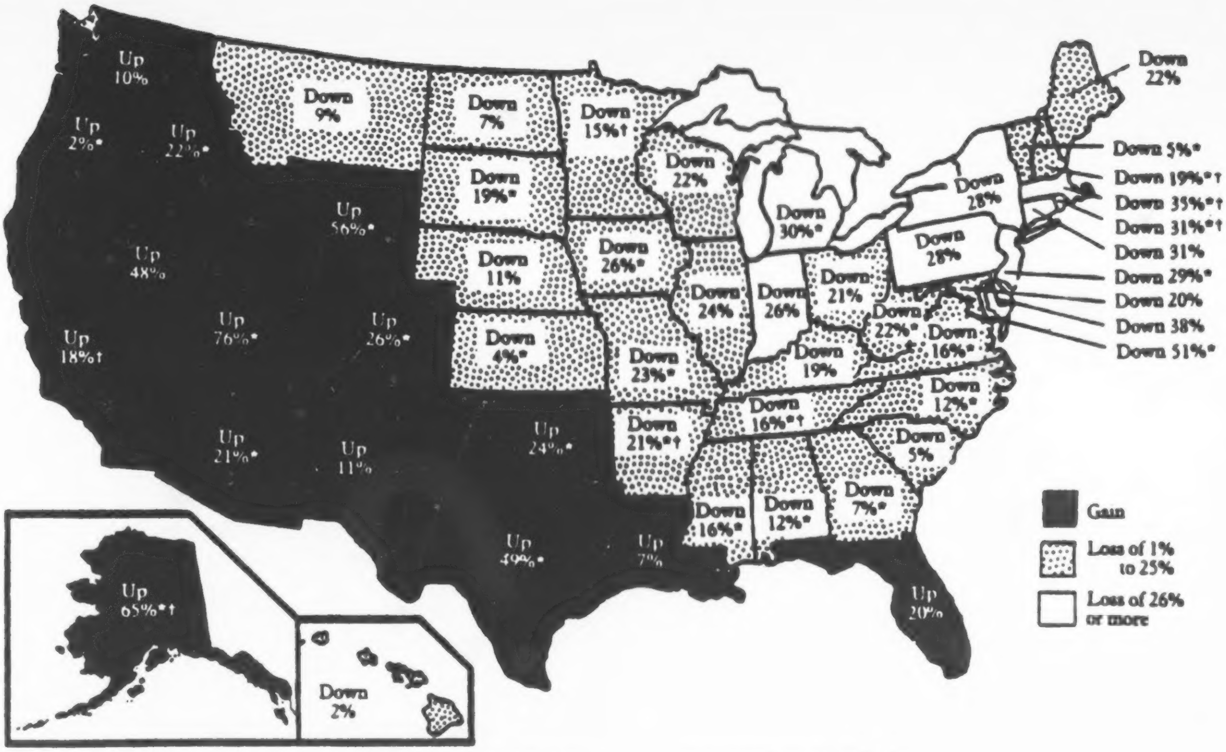
[4] *Harold L. Hodgkinson, "Demographics and the Economy: Understanding a Changing Marketplace."* _*The Admissions Strategist*_*, Jan. 1985.*

[5] *Scott Jaschik, "States Called Key to College Gains for Minorities."* _*Chronicle of Higher Education*_*, July 23, 1986, pp.1,14.*

MAP 2-D1

PROJECTED CHANGES IN GRADUATES, BY STATE, FROM 1981 TO 2000



*Projections include graduates of public high schools only. All other state projections include public and nonpublic high-school graduates.

†Projections are for 1998-99.

Source: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. From Harold L. Hodgkinson, "Demographics and the Economy: Understanding a Changing Marketplace." The Admissions Strategist, Jan 1985, p.3.

While the number of high school graduates (and thus, potential immediate college-bound students) has substantially decreased since 1979-80 (10% decline nationally as of 1984-85)[6] and is projected to continue its decline (see Map 2-D1), the number of graduating high school Minority students has been increasing both numerically and proportionately, especially among Blacks.[7-10] In contrast, the college enrollment of White high school graduates has been increasing slightly numerically and proportionately, while Minority enrollment also increased but peaked in 1980 and has since declined, especially for Black high school graduates.[1,7-13] According to the 1980 census, half of all 18 and 19 year olds were enrolled in school, while one-third of all 20 and 21 year olds were enrolled. (These proportions were much lower for Hispanics and Native Americans.) In addition, one of six 22 through 24 year olds and one of ten 25 through 34 year olds were enrolled in educational institutions (see Appendix 2-A2). Figure 2-D1 shows the proportion of 18-19 and 20-21 year olds by ethnic group who have been enrolled over the years since 1971. For the typical

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[6] National Education Association Research, Estimated data bank.

[7] The College Board, Minority Enrollment in Higher Education Institutions: A Chronological View (Final Draft). New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, Sept. 9, 1985.

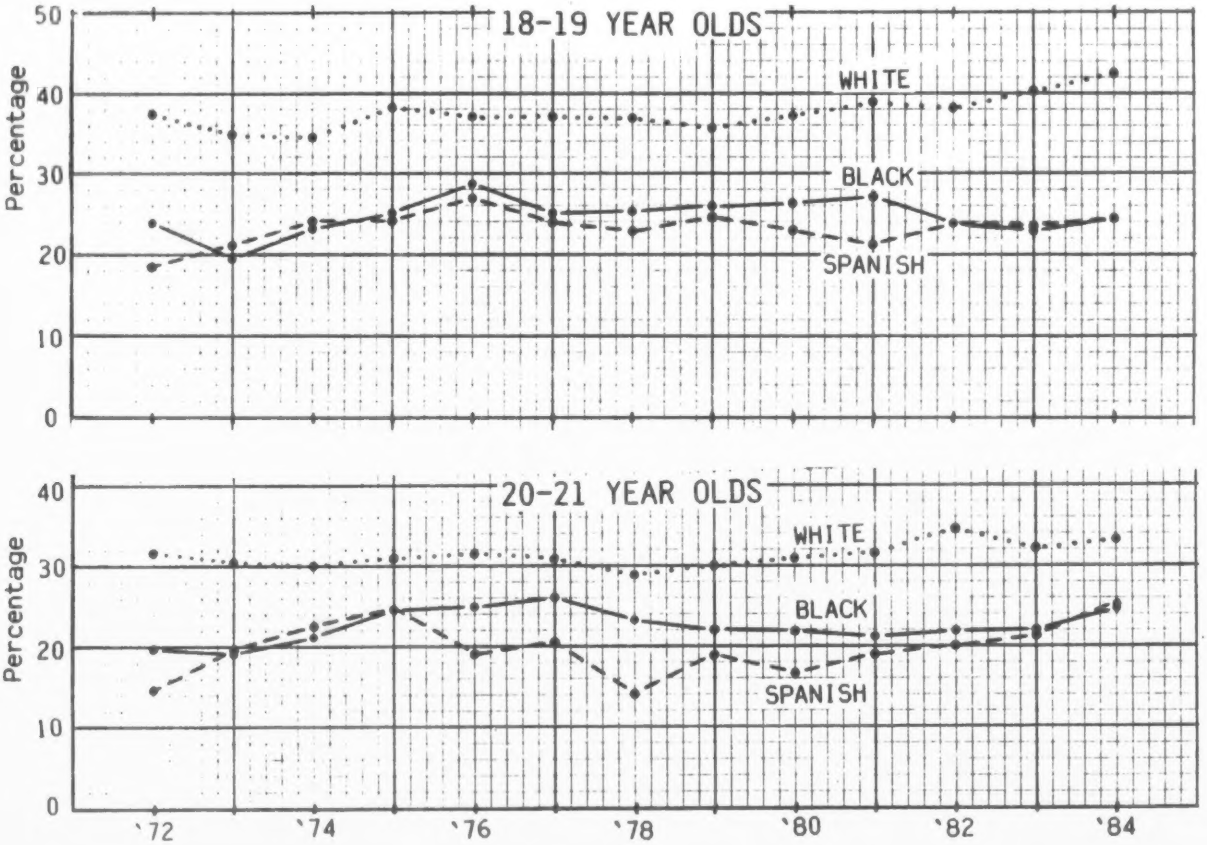
[8] Harold L. Hodgkinson, All One System: Demographics of Education, Kindergarten through Graduate School. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc., 1985.

[9] Indiana Commission for Higher Education, Final Report on Minority Student Participation, Nov. 1984.

[10] Ian McNett, Demographic Imperatives: Implications for Educational Policy (Report of the Forum on "The Demographics of Changing Ethnic Populations and their Implications for Elementary-Secondary and Postsecondary Educational Policy"). American Council on Education, Forum of Educational Organization Leaders, and Institute for Educational Leadership, 1983.

FIGURE 2-D1

COLLEGE ENROLLMENT RATE OF U.S. POPULATION BY ETHNIC GROUP



SOURCE: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, Series P-20, Nos. 247, 272, 278, 294, 309, 321, 335, 355, 362, 373, 392, 394, 404. "School Enrollment -- Social and Economic Characteristics of Students," U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1973-1985. See Appendix 2-C1.

11/ *Alecia Swasy, "Universities and Federal Government Score Low in Enforcing Order to Boost Minority Enrollment."* *The Wall Street Journal*, *Thursday, Aug. 22, 1985, p. 42.*

12/ *Phil Fernandez, "Minorities May Fear Purdue's Math."* *Journal and Courier*, *Thursday, Jan. 16, 1986. (Indiana Commission for Higher Education Data)*

13/ *"Decline in Black Education Cited During Summit Conference."* *Black Issues in Higher Education*, *Feb. 1, 1986, p.3.*

recent high school graduation age group, approximately 40 percent of Whites have been enrolled, compared with only 25 percent of Blacks and Spanish persons. However, as noted in the previous section, a much higher proportion of Blacks and Spanish persons remain in secondary school past the typical age of high school graduation. These higher holdback rates are also reflected in college enrollment rates for 20-21 year olds, in which case, while White enrollment declines five percent from the previous age period, the enrollment rate of Blacks and Spanish persons remains almost constant. This would thus suggest a higher average college age for Blacks and Spanish persons than for Whites.

National college enrollment has been projected to decline until approximately 1994 due to aging of the Baby Boom generation.[7] Consequently, Minorities are becoming increasingly underrepresented in postsecondary education, except for Asian Americans. Of special concern is that both Blacks and Hispanics lose ground relative to other ethnic groups at each higher level of the educational process.[2,14]

> **Black enrollment in post-graduate degree programs has dropped steadily since 1981 and is disproportionately low. Further, the number of Black women with graduate degrees has increased sharply while Black men with post graduate degrees has steadily declined. This poses a serious threat to Black male-female relations and could result in an educationally divided Black community.[13] (p.3)**

Two other phenomena of major importance have also been observed. First, a growing proportion of enrollment in higher education is shifting from full-time to part-time. Between 1970 and 1982 full-time enrollment in U.S. higher education declined from 68 percent to 58 percent and is projected to decline further to just over 50 percent by 1992.[7] Although this decline holds across all major ethnic groups, it is especially important for the future because more than half the higher education enrollment of the two fastest growing ethnic groups (Asian American and Hispanic) is part-time -- and the other groups are not far behind. In addition, only full-time freshman Black students suffered a numerical decline in both two- and four-year institutions from 1980 to 1982.

Second, enrollment in four-year institutions has been declining while enrollment in two-year institutions has been increasing. In 1970 almost three-fourths of all students in higher education were in four-year institutions, but by 1982 only 62 percent were there.[7] This decline occurred for all major ethnic groups, except Hispanics and Native Americans, who were already predominately enrolled in two-year institutions (this latter was also the case with low socio-economic status students).[15] Thus, an increasing minority of Black students in higher education are also in two-year institutions.[10,14]

From 1976 to 1982 total enrollment in four-year colleges grew just under 8 percent while total enrollment in two-year colleges grew more than 21 percent. For Minorities the former growth was 15 percent, while the

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[14] The College Board, Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black Americans. New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, 1985. (See Attachment I.)

[15] Valerie Lee, Access to Higher Education: The Experience of Blacks, Hispanics and Low Socio-Economic Status Whites. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, Division of Policy Analysis and Research, May 1985. (See Attachment III.)

latter growth was 30 percent. These national trends apply also to Indiana where a higher proportion of Black students were pursuing certificate and associate-degree educational levels in 1982 than in 1980.[9] Finally, the underrepresentation of Minorities in higher education has become extended beyond the four- and two-year institutions to all postsecondary educational programs.[16]

One of the most frequently identified "causes" for low Minority participation in higher education is inadequate or inappropriate financial aid.[7,8,12,17,18] Financial aid is necessitated by inadequate socio-economic resources,[7,15] often made worse by fluctuating economic conditions.[7,9]

> In brief, the financial situation faced by blacks, either young people or adults, considering college attendance has become harsher in the 1980's. Not only has family income failed to keep pace with that of Whites and Hispanics, but the substantial increase in single head of family households (with, therefore, a single wage earner at best) makes it most difficult to accumulate even modest savings for college or to consider realistically paying-off monies borrowed to attend college. This disparity in income, combined with the shifting composition of the financial aid package may be the primary deterrent to black college enrollment.[7] (p.12)

> "Black and Hispanic families, at the lowest end of the economic ladder, are least able to afford steadily increasing college tuitions, and federal student aid is declining."[2] (p.20)

> "Blacks are being particularly hardest hit by the ... reduction in federal financial aid, because about 48 percent of Black college students are from low-income families."[13] (p.3)

Because of the student's socio-economic background, the mix within the financial aid package is also highly important: grants, loans, work-study, etc. According to the College Board, from 1970-71 to 1984-85,

> increase in loans to over 50% of the aid package and a reduction of grants from two-thirds to under half of the loan package would undoubtedly prove very discouraging to minority and black young people, particularly as they look to a four-year college education. A debt load of up to $10,000 at the conclusion of a four-year degree program can prove a very strong deterrent to a lower income person whose annual family income is half that amount.[7] (pp.13-14)

Another causal factor for poor participation in higher education, often related to the student's background, is the lack of a perceived relationship between a college degree and a good job,[8,9] and

> "it is most difficult for a low income minority young person to take a long term view when he or she has immediate needs for funds to support themselves and/or their family".[7] (p.16)

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[16] American Council on Education, "Dim Outlook for Minorities in Higher Ed Continues." Higher Education & National Affairs, Vol. 34 (No. 19). Oct. 14, 1985, pp. 1,5. (Newsletter of the ACE)

[17] Scott Jaschik, "Decline in Enrollment of Blacks Seen Unless States Start New Programs." The Chronicle of Higher Education, Jan. 8, 1986.

[18] Joseph Marks, The Enrollment of Black Students in Higher Education: Can Declines Be Prevented? The Southern Regional Education Board, 1985. (Reported in The Purdue Exponent, Friday, Jan. 24, 1986)

In conjunction with a poor perceived relationship there often exists, inadequate junior-high and high school academic and career counseling[8,9] and thus inadequate or incorrect academic preparation,[9,12,13,17] together with higher admissions standards of educational institutions,[18] as well as higher high-school graduation standards:

> More and more states are using standard performance tests to rank and set graduation standards for students. Due to cultural differences and historically poor education, Blacks tend to do poorly on these tests. As the use of student achievement tests become more widespread, more Black students will begin exiting from the educational system.[13] (P.3, underline added)

With the decrease in the number of high school graduates, another explanation for lower participation rates is greater competition for the students' services, especially by the armed forces and business or industry, which

> offer both immediate income and opportunities for further training and education. Within this milieu, colleges appear to offer a debt burden and only modest assurances of well paid employment after graduation. This would appear to place colleges at a disadvantage in recruiting those young people who are uncertain as to their academic ability and insecure as to their financial future. It may very well be that the best recruiting device that colleges can develop for lower-income black and minority high school graduates is to develop some form of a "guarantee" of well paid employment upon receipt of a college degree. If not, the decline in the enrollment of black high school graduates may continue as it is based on the economic realities of our society.[17] (p.16)

> A strong growth market in higher education during the decade will be the adult learner -- probably a worker, probably a head of household, and probably a woman or minority. Typically these are not roles that students have played well while succeeding in the conventional undergraduate curriculum....
>
> Higher education's 12 million enrollments are its source of stability, while growth in the other sectors just mentioned has been truly spectacular. Higher education as a whole will not decline much in total enrollments -- perhaps 1 or so million -- but the declines will not be evenly distributed across institutions. And higher education has lost and will continue to lose "market share" as the number of adults engaged in serious education and training programs continues to increase. Already there are 46 million potential "customers" out there, and the admissions officer's trick will be to make them want to come to his or her campus. The other alternative is to stick with familiar programs and students, as long as institutions plan for a smaller student body with very different characteristics[18] (p.6)

> On the other hand, diversity is the American hallmark, and recent success of the military and business worlds in their educational endeavors suggests a very different postsecondary world. Most institutions with which we are involved, from hospitals and local governments to museums and the workplace, today have an educational arm. Lifelong learning is here today for about half of the American adult population -- ready or not. Colleges and universities are a part of this picture, but only a part (12 million of about 40 million people being educated past high school). Given the demography plus the disaggregation of the providers of educational services, the portion of the total pie for colleges and universities will continue to decline -- they will have a relatively constant place in a rapidly expanding universe....
>
> It is also clear that for the next decade, the only growth area in education will be in adult and continuing education, with increases in elementary schools in certain regions.... America will simply not be a nation of youth in our lifetime. This is why by 1992, half of all college students will be over 25 and 20% will be over 35.[6] (pp. 3,16, underline added)

Contrast this with 1970, at which time three-fourths of students in higher education were under 25 years of age.[6]

Increasing Minority enrollment (admission) in higher education is only the first step, however. Students who participate must persist and graduate in their educational program.[16]

> Studies done over the last twenty years affirm a central truth: of 100 students admitted to a four-year bachelors program, less than 50 (about 46) would graduate, on time, from the institution they entered. If one extends the time to seven years, about 70 of our original 100 would have graduated from SOME institution by that time. It seems important to point out that the "template" for undergraduate education (eight semesters of instruction straight through to graduation) has not been the path taken by even a simple majority of students over the years....
>
> We also know that unlike the high school drop-out, the college drop-out who is not a flunk-out tends to have as good a grade average as those who stay, often even better. Major reasons students give for dropping out of college are heavily financial,[11,15,16] but this is sometimes the easist explanation for what may be a very complex issue. It would appear that many, if not most, drop-outs are in reality STOP-outs who simply have to do something else before resuming their studies. Yet they are often treated by the college or university as persons who have left higher education forever.[8] (p.17, underline added)

Reasons for dropping out of higher education tend to be the same ones as those keeping other potential students from even enrolling, such as inadequate high school preparation for college and inadequate counseling[10] as well as a scarcity of appropriate role models[11,16] and social/cultural adjustment problems.[11]

> The largest number of drop-outs occur in the freshman year -- very early in the first term, most potential drop-outs in academic difficulty are sending signals which no one can hear. This is because there is no standard faculty examination until the MIDDLE of the first term, by which time behaviors which impede proper study are already firmly in place.... Many drop-outs and flunk-outs are bright enough to do good college work, but have never learned how to study effectively, nor how to take tests and do good written work.
>
> We are just entering an era in which youth will be in short supply in America.... For the next fifteen years at least, we will have to work harder with the limited number of young people we have to work with, whether we are in higher education, business or the military. If a young person fails the first time, we may have to help them succeed the second time rather than summarily replacing them. They will be scarce for a long time....[8] (p.17, underline added)

College retention and graduation is especially serious for Minorities and low socio-economic status (SES) Whites who, since 1975, have been twice as likely as high-SES Whites to no longer be enrolled two years after entrance.[15] Although Blacks' college graduation rates increased significantly from the mid-1960s through 1970,[10] they have declined since 1975.[14] Moreover, while enrollment in two-year institutions has been increasing, retention rates are lower than for four-year institutions, especially for Black students.[14]

"In our increasingly technological society, choice of fields is an important dimension of equality"[14] (p.6). Although over the past decade Blacks have become more similar to Whites in the fields of study in which they receive their higher education degrees, at each postsecondary educational level Blacks are underrepresented in math- and science-related degree fields.[14] At the bachelor level, the proportion choosing quantitative fields is only 60 percent of the national proportion; at the master's level, 40 percent; and at the doctorate level, only 33 percent the national proportion. Rather, degrees of Blacks are still concentrated in education, the humanities, and the social sciences, where salaries tend to be lowest and unemployment rates highest of degree occupations. These occupational choices are influenced by, among other things, parental education and their own early educational preparation and achievement.

> We need to make a major commitment, as educators, to see that all our students in higher education have the opportunity to perform academically at a high level. There will be barriers of color, language, culture, attitude that will be greater than any we have faced before, as Spanish-speaking students are joined by those from Thailand and Vietnam. The task will be not to lower the standards but to increase the effort. To do so will be to the direct benefit of all Americans, as a new generation of people become a part of our fabric, adding the high level of energy and creativity that has always been characteristic of groups who are making their way in America. Their numbers are now so large that if they do not succeed, all of us will have diminished futures. That is the new reality.[9] (p.18, underline added)

(2) Higher Education Enrollment: U.S. and Indiana

The number of full-time undergraduate enrollments increased in both Indiana and the U.S. between 1974 and 1980 (see Table 2-D1). During this period, the percentage increases were higher for Minorities than for Whites (Non-Hispanic), but Minorities continued to be under-represented in higher education enrollment compared to their population representation, except for Asian Americans. Moreover, it appears that Minority representation in higher education declined between 1980 and 1982, both in the U.S. and in Indiana.[19] Since 1982, according to the latest enrollment information

TABLE 2-D1

FULL-TIME UNDERGRADUATE ENROLLMENT IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION BY ETHNIC GROUP FOR THE U.S. AND INDIANA: 1974, 1976, 1978, AND 1980

	Total Number (100%)	White NonHispanic		MINORITIES					
				Total Minority		Percent Black NonHispanic	Percent Hispanic	Percent Amer. Indian Alas. Native	Percent Asian or Pac. Ils.
		Number	%*	Number	%*				
UNITED STATES									
1974 (2734 Inst.)	5,617,617	4,858,306	86.5%	759,311	13.5%	9.0%	2.8%	.6%	1.1%
1976 (2821 Inst.)	5,755,138	4,819,468	83.7	935,670	16.3	10.5	3.3	.7%	1.8
Change '74-'76	2.4%	-.8%		23.2%		19.6%	21.3%	18.4%	59.3%
1978 (2897 Inst.)	5,663,931	4,716,593	83.3	947,338	16.7	10.6	3.5	.6	2.0
Change '76-'78	-1.6%	-2.1%		1.2%		-.6%	12.0%	-5.6%	12.0%
1980 (2979 Inst.)	5,993,060	4,971,623	83.0	1,021,437	17.0	10.4	3.7	.6	2.3
Change '78-'80	5.8%	5.4%		7.8%		4.1%	12.6%	6.5%	19.9%
Change '74-'80	6.7%	2.3%		34.5%		23.9%	40.4%	19.1%	113.8%
INDIANA									
1974 (59 Inst.)	121,391	114,332	94.2%	7,059	5.8%	5,405 4.5%	1,031 .8%	.2%	416 .3%
1976 (58 Inst.)	131,528	122,514	93.1	9,014	6.9	7,231 5.5	1,011 .8	.2	540 .4
Change '74-'76	8.4%	7.2%		27.7%		33.8%	-1.9%	12.1%	29.8%
1978 (60 Inst.)	129,101	120,004	93.0	9,097	7.0	6,996 5.4	1,197 .9	.2	668 .5
Change '76-'78	-1.8%	-2.0%		.9%		-3.2%	18.4%	-6.9%	27.4%
1980 (68 Inst.)	143,976	132,062	91.7	11,914	8.3	9,117 6.3	1,524 1.1	.2	951 .7
Change '78-'80	11.5%	10.0%%		31.0%		30.3%	27.3%	49.1%	38.2%
Change '74-'80	18.6%	15.5%		68.8%		68.7%	47.8%	55.6%	128.6%
Persons 15-24 Years Old: U.S. (1980)	42,471,900	34,404,200	81.0%	8,067,700	19.0%	13.4%	3.1%	.8%	1.5%
IN	1,048,220	944,770	90.1%	103,450	9.9%	8.5%	.7%	.2%	.4%

*Percent of total for that year.

DATA SOURCE: "Racial and Ethnic Enrollment Data from Institutions of Higher Education." U.S. Department of Education, Office for Civil Rights. Also, U.S. Bureau of the Census. See Appendix 2-D1.

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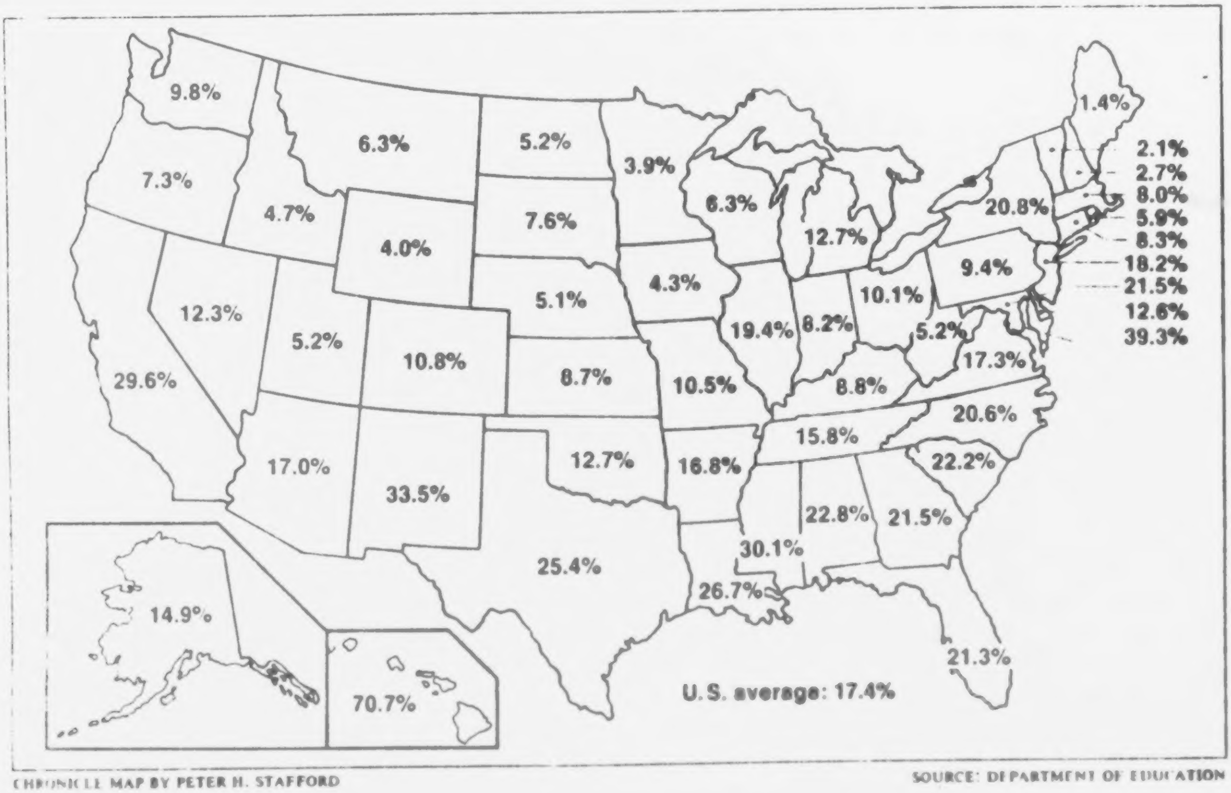
[19] "Higher Education Enrollment Statistics", Black Issues in Higher Education, April 15, 1986, Vol. 3 (No.3), p.3.

(for 1984), Minority representation has appeared to have increased again,[5,20] except for Black enrollment,[12] which exhibited a 16 percent decline in Indiana from 1980-81 to 1984-85.[12] This compares to a 3.3 percent Black decline nationally[5]. Native American enrollment also declined (1.2%) nationally, while Asian enrollment increased by one-third, and Hispanic enrollment increased more than 12 percent. As shown in Map 2-D2, in 1980 Minority enrollment in higher education represented 17.4 percent of all college students nationally and 8.2 percent in Indiana, both percentages well below their population percentage counterparts.

MAP 2-D2

PERCENT MINORITY ENROLLMENT* IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES BY STATE: 1984



CHRONICLE MAP BY PETER H. STAFFORD

SOURCE: DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

* *Excluding foreign students*

SOURCE: "Fact-File", The Chronicle of Higher Education, July 23, 1986, p.25.

This decline is especially important to Indiana because of the increasing representation of Minorities in the potential college-bound population and because of Indiana's college attendance rate being well below that of the nation[21] (68% versus 82% for Indiana and the U.S., respectively, in 1982).

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[20] "Fact-File", The Chronicle of Higher Education, July 23, 1986, p.25.

[21] W. Vance Grant & Leo J. Eiden, Digest of Education Statistics. Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, 1982, p. 14.

ranking Indiana 33rd.[22] However, Indiana's total enrollment in higher education did increase more than one percent from 1982 to 1983 to approximately 256,500.[23]

The impact on higher education that increasing proportions of Blacks and Hispanics in Indiana's population will have is addressed in the most recent annual report of the Indiana Commission for Higher Education:

> Increasing Minority Enrollment In Higher Education
>
> After reaching a peak enrollment of 20,711 (7.7% of total enrollment) in 1980-81, black enrollment in Indiana higher education has declined each succeeding year. In 1983-84, the percentages of Blacks enrolled in higher education was 6.7% of total enrollment. Meanwhile in 1980 Blacks represented 7.6% of those in the age group 15-19. The general trend in participation in higher education by Hispanics is even worse.
>
> As minorities become a large percentage of the Indiana work force, the education of minorities in Indiana becomes increasingly important for the future economic and social vitality of the state.
>
> Conclusion: Increased and more effective participation in higher education by Indiana's minority population is essential if the skilled work force necessary for continued economic growth is to be available in Indiana.[1] (p.19)

The college attendance rates of Indiana high school graduates have persistently fallen below National and Midwestern Regional averages. However, there have been differences in what types of postsecondary institutions are included in calculating the "college" or "postsecondary" attendance rates. Therefore, it is necessary, when comparing rates, to assure that the same defined populations are included or excluded.

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[22] The College Entrance Board.

[23] National Center for Education Statistics unpublished data.

TABLE 2-D2

INDIANA HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION RATES, HIGHER EDUCATION ENROLLMENT, AND MILITARY ENLISTMENT: 1977-78 TO 1984-85

School Year	12th Grade			H. S. Graduates Enrolled in Higher Education Institutions[3]							Military Enlistment	
	Fall[1] Enrollment	Total[2] Graduates	% of Enr.	Total Number	Total Percent[4]	Percent 4-yr. Inst.	Percent Voc./Tech.	Percent Business School	Percent Nursing School	Percent Other Inst.	Number	Percent
1977-78	79,814	77,134	96.6%	33,834	43.86%	32.88%	5.30%	2.17%	1.20%	2.32%	2,010	2.61%
1978-79	80,824	77,418	95.8	34,765	44.91%	33.37%	5.40%	1.98%	1.06	3.09%	1,941	2.51%
1979-80	78,435	75,639	96.4	34,250	45.28%	32.90%	5.87%	2.15%	1.16%	3.20%	2,267	3.00%
1980-81	78,386	75,557	96.4	36,928	48.87%	34.91%	7.03%	2.34%	1.23%	3.43%	2,852	3.78%
1981-82	78,754	76,032	96.5	35,098	46.16%	32.32%	6.69%	2.28%	1.32%	3.55%	3,148	4.14%
1982-83	74,377	72,560	97.6	35,615	49.08%	34.12%	7.36%	2.39%	1.38%	3.83%	3,971	5.47%
1983-84	70,246	67,445	96.0	35,345	52.41%	35.68%	7.82%	2.65%	1.40%	4.86%	3,641	5.40%
1984-85	68,646	64,904	94.5	35,076	54.04%	37.38%	7.81%	2.97%	1.30%	4.59%	3,576	5.51%

[1] *EIR-1 Report.*
[2] *Regular + (mid-term) special graduates, excluding GEDT graduates.*
[3] *Excluding military enlistment.*
[4] *Of graduates.*

Source: *Indiana Dept. of Education, Division of Educational Information and Research, Indianapolis. See Appendix 2-D2.*

The numbers of Indiana high school graduates declined 14.6 percent (11,128 students) between 1981-82 and 1984-85 (from 76,032 to 64,904). With a few aberations, this decline is projected to continue, falling below 50,000 by the year 2,000 (also see Figure 2-B2 in Section B). Part of the loss will probably be filled by an increasing number of working adults and part-time students.

However, since 1981-82 there has been an increase in the percentage of high school graduates attending higher education institutions, from 46 percent to 54 percent, so that the numbers who have enrolled have remained relatively constant at about 35,000. This increase has occurred for all major groups of higher education but primarily for non-four-year institutions, such as vocational/technical/trade schools and "other" institutions. In addition, the number of graduates enlisting in the military has almost doubled, with the percentage more than doubling. [This is not the case, however, since the recent economic recovery began in 1982-83.]

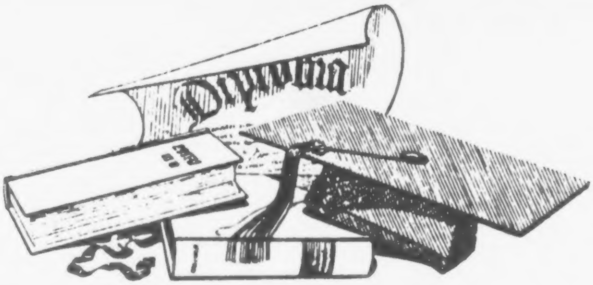


TABLE 2-D3

INDIANA HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES' COLLEGE ENROLLMENT RATES

1984 GRADUATES - 67,445				1985 GRADUATES - 64,904		
Number of Graduates Enrolling	Cumulative Number	Cumulative Percent	Type of Institution	Number of Graduates Enrolling	Cumulative Number	Cumulative Percent
24,063	24,063	35.7%	4-Year	24,261	24,261	37.4%
3,280	27,343	40.5	< 4-Year	2,978	27,239	42.0
5,271	32,614	48.4	Voc'l.-Tech	5,065	32,304	49.8
1,787	34,401	51.0	Business	1,925	34,229	51.9
944	35,345	52.4	Nursing	847	35,076	54.0
3,641	38,986	57.8	Military	3,576	38,652	59.5

Source: ***Indiana Department of Education, Div. of Educational Information and Research, Indianapolis, IN.***

The above data show that although slightly fewer H.S. graduates were enrolled in the five listed types of post-secondary institutions in 1985 than in 1984, a higher percent of graduates attended these institutions in 1985 than in 1984. Of course, this is because the number of graduates decreased from 67,445 in 1984 to 64,904 in 1985. The largest percentage and numerical enrollment increases were in 4-year institutions (which is a change over previous years, when the less-than-4-year institutions gained most). Business schools and military service also showed gains in 1985 over the previous year.

Enrollment rates of high school graduates in higher education are appreciably higher in the four counties with the largest Minority populations (as well as total populations) than in Indiana in general. This higher proportional enrollment (see Table 2-D4) is true for all types of postsecondary education, except for nursing schools, and for military service as well. Enrollment in each of these four counties is also higher than the 1982 national average of 56 percent, as well as their own previous year's rate (57.4% for the four together).

TABLE 2-D4

INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTY TRENDS IN HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES AND GRADUATES ENROLLED IN HIGHER EDUCATION: 1984-85

Geographical Area	12th Grade			High School Graduates Enrolled in Higher Education Institutions[2]									Percent Military Enlist
	Fall Enrol.	Total Graduates	% of Enr.	Total Higher Ed.[1] Number	Total Higher Ed. Percent[3]	4-yr. Inst. Number	4-yr. Inst. Percent	Percent Voc./Tec.	Percent Business School	Percent Nursing School	Percent Other Inst.		
Indiana	68,646	64,904	94.5%	35,076	54.04%	24,258	37.38%	7.81%	2.97%	1.30%	4.59%		5.51%
Marion Co.	7,415	7,083	95.5%	4,194	59.21%	2,925	41.30%	8.67%	3.16%	1.13%	4.96%		5.58%
Lake	6,516	6,322	97.0%	3,800	60.11%	2,637	41.71%	7.64%	4.40%	1.47%	4.89%		6.37%
Allen	3,576	3,425	95.8%	2,119	61.87%	1,440	42.04%	9.72%	3.18%	1.34%	5.58%		5.84%
St. Joseph	2,461	2,346	95.3%	1,442	61.47%	954	40.66%	10.02%	2.77%	1.11%	6.91%		4.82%
Vanderburgh	1,578	1,425	90.3%	761	53.40%	576	40.42%	7.58%	.77%	1.61%	3.02%		3.09%
Madison	1,903	1,799	94.5%	1,087	60.42%	669	37.19%	9.95%	3.34%	2.00%	7.95%		6.95%
LaPorte	1,436	1,381	96.2%	800	57.93%	557	40.33%	6.15%	3.19%	2.61%	5.65%		7.96%
Delaware	1,682	1,592	94.6%	732	45.98%	606	38.07%	4.15%	1.57%	.82%	1.38%		3.14%
Vigo	1,252	1,192	95.2%	730	61.24%	484	40.60%	11.41%	3.69%	2.52%	3.02%		8.72%
Elkhart	1,876	1,763	94.0%	715	40.56%	526	29.84%	4.93%	1.93%	1.08%	2.78%		3.18%
Grant	1,056	917	86.8%	489	53.33%	336	36.64%	8.18%	2.84%	2.18%	3.49%		7.42%
Monroe	888	835	94.0%	434	51.98%	363	43.47%	3.47%	1.20%	.60%	3.23%		3.35%
Howard	1,247	1,174	94.1%	589	50.17%	455	38.76%	5.88%	2.47%	1.19%	1.87%		5.20%
Clark	1,101	965	87.6%	269	27.88%	197	20.41%	3.94%	2.28%	.10%	1.14%		5.49%
Tippecanoe	1,239	1,159	93.5%	732	63.16%	605	52.20%	7.68%	.95%	1.12%	1.21%		3.71%
Wayne	966	871	90.2%	401	46.04%	242	27.78%	9.76%	1.38%	.92%	6.20%		5.51%
Floyd	805	725	90.1%	374	51.59%	305	42.07%	6.62%	1.38%	1.38%	.14%		4.00%
Porter	1,741	1,757	100.9%	1,043	59.36%	738	42.00%	8.42%	3.81%	2.11%	3.02%		8.82%
Miami	652	617	94.6%	307	49.76%	237	38.41%	5.35%	2.59%	.65%	2.76%		6.48%
Bartholomew	985	815	82.7%	500	61.35%	358	43.93%	8.83%	2.09%	1.10%	5.40%		2.70%
Johnson	1,205	1,112	92.3%	601	54.05%	411	36.96%	7.91%	3.06%	2.34%	3.78%		4.86%
Hamilton	1,361	1,338	98.3%	1,003	74.96%	822	61.43%	5.53%	3.89%	.75%	3.36%		2.84%
TOTALS													
Selected Co.	42,941	40,613	94.6%	23,122	56.93%	16,443	40.49%	7.82%	2.95%	1.38%	4.30%		5.51%
Non-Sel. Co.	25,705	24,291	94.5%	11,954	49.21%	7,815	32.17%	7.81%	2.99%	1.17%	5.08%		5.51%

[1] *Regular and (mid-term) Special Graduates, excluding GEDT graduates. (May also include early, non-12th grade grads.)*
[2] *Excluding military enlistment.*
[3] *Relative to total graduates.*

Source: *Indiana Dept. of Education, Division of Educational Information and Research, Indianapolis, 1986 (EIR-1 Data). See Appendix 2-D4.*

Of additional concern is the observation that, for the 70 non-selected counties, a much smaller percentage of high school graduates travel away from home to attend a four-year institution (32.2% compared to 41.5% for top four counties or 40.5% for the selected 22 counties). This finding supports placing educational programs near the sources of students.

TABLE 2-D5

ENROLLMENT AT SELECTED INDIANA INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION RANKED BY NON-FOREIGN MINORITY REPRESENTATION: 1984

(INSTITUTIONS WITH MORE THAN 80 MINORITY STUDENTS)

				MINORITIES						
	Total Number	White		All Minorities		Percent	Percent	Percent Native	Percent Asian	Percent Foreign
Institution	(100%)	Number	% Total	Number	% Total	Black	Hispanic	Amer.	Amer.	Students
Martin Center College	140	11	7.9%	129	92.1%	92.1%	-	-	-	-
Clark College	537	216	40.2	308	57.4	55.7	.9%	-	.7%	2.4%
IVTC - Northwest	3,314	1,928	58.2	1,386	41.8	32.5	8.5	.5%	.4	-
IU - Northwest	4,686	3,232	69.0	1,435	30.6	23.0	6.8	.1	.7	.4
Calumet College	1,130	842	74.5	287	25.4	11.5	13.6	-	.3	.1
IVTC - Central	4,427	3,402	76.8	1,025	23.2	21.5	.8	.4	.5	-
Purdue - Calumet	7,446	6,325	84.9	1,113	14.9	7.5	6.5	.2	.8	.1
ISU - Terre Haute	11,618	9,185	79.1	1,229	10.6	7.8	.4	.2	2.2	10.4
IUPUI (Indianapolis)	23,366	20,659	88.4	2,463	10.5	7.6	.8	.2	2.0	1.0
Marian College	1,044	917	87.8	110	10.5	9.4	.5	-	.7	1.6
IVTC - North Central	2,352	2,154	91.6	198	8.4	6.3	.7	1.1	.3	-
IVTC - East Central	1,824	1,672	91.7	152	8.3	7.7	.1	.4	.2	-
IVTC - Northeast	3,318	3,065	92.7	253	7.6	6.5	.5	.1	.5	-
Indiana Central Univ.	2.999	2,764	92.2	225	7.5	5.3	.6	1.0	.6	.3
U. of Notre Dame	9,461	8,433	89.1	674	7.1	2.2	3.1	.3	1.5	3.7
Anderson College	2,022	1,841	91.0	141	7.0	4.2	.2	2.3	.3	2.0
IU - Bloomington	32,715	28,480	87.1	2,256	6.9	4.3	1.1	.2	1.3	6.0
ITT Tech. Inst.-Ft. Wayne	1,252	1,166	93.1	86	6.9	6.3	.3	-	.2	-
Butler Univ.	4,030	3,744	92.9	270	6.7	4.8	.9	.1	.9	.4
Purdue - W. Lafayette	31,852	28,395	89.1	1,956	6.1	3.0	1.2	.2	1.7	4.7
IVTC - Kokomo	1,388	1,303	93.9	85	6.1	4.6	.7	.4	.4	-
Vincennes Univ.	6,688	6,144	91.9	404	6.0	5.5	.2	.0	.2	2.1
IU - South Bend	5,442	5,142	94.5	281	5.2	3.9	.6	.1	.6	.3
IVTC - Wabash Valley	1,667	1,583	95.0	84	5.0	3.6	.6	.5	.4	-
IUPU - Fort Wayne	10,171	9,648	94.9	486	4.8	3.5	.6	.1	.6	.4
Ball St. Univ.	17,370	16,401	94.4	787	4.5	3.2	.6	.3	.5	1.0
Purdue - North Central	2,616	2,508	95.9	108	4.1	2.4	1.0	.2	.6	-
U. of Evansville	4,208	3,825	90.9	149	3.5	2.8	.2	.1	.4	5.6
IU - Kokomo	2,499	2,408	96.4	86	3.4	1.8	.9	.4	.4	.2
ISU - Evansville	3,848	3,692	95.9	126	3.3	2.7	.2	.1	.3	.8
Valparaiso Univ.	3,958	3,753	94.8	114	2.9	1.4	.6	.4	.6	2.3
IU - Southeast	4,399	4,283	97.4	108	2.5	1.8	.2	.2	.3	.2

Source: *U.S. Dept. of Education, Office for Educational Research and Improvement, 1986. See Appendix 2-D5.*

Minority enrollment in Indiana higher education is spread throughout a number and variety of institutions (see Table 2-D5). The largest concentrations (percentages) of Minority students in 1984 were found in Martin Center College, Clark College, IVTC-Northwest, IU-Northwest, Calumet College, IVTC-Central, Purdue-Calumet, ISU-Terre Haute, IUPU-Indianapolis, and Marian College. However, the largest numbers of Minority students were found in IUPU-Indianapolis, IU-Bloomington and Purdue-West Lafayette. Note also that 12.9 percent (3426) of IVTC's 26,576 students were Minorities, compared to 8.0 percent of Indiana's total number of students in higher education (or 7.4% of all Non-IVTC students: See Appendix 2-D5).

TABLE 2-D6

INTENDED GENERAL AREAS OF STUDY OF U.S. AND INDIANA HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS: 1981 & 1985

(RANKED BY AVERAGE TOTAL SAT SCORES)

Area of Study	1981		1985[1/]		'85/'81 Ratio*		% change	
	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN	U.S.	IN
Physical sciences.....	2.0%	1.5%	1.7%	1.5%	.85	1.00	-.3%	-
Mathematics...........	1.1	.9	1.1	1.0	1.00	1.11	-	+.1%
English...............	1.4	1.0	1.4	.9	1.00	.90	-	-.1
Engineering...........	11.8	10.3	11.7	10.5	.99	1.02	-.1	+.2
Biological sciences...	3.3	1.9	3.1	2.1	.94	1.11	-.2	+.2
Foreign language......	.9	.8	.9	.7	1.00	.88	-	-.1
History...............	.5	.5	.5	.4	1.00	.80	-	-.1
Philosophy/religion...	.4	.6	.3	.4	.75	.67	-.1	-.2
Social sciences.......	7.4	5.8	7.5	6.4	1.01	1.10	+.1	+.6
Undecided.............	4.8	4.1	4.8	3.9	1.00	.95	-	-.2
Library science.......	.0	.1	.0	.0	1.00	.50	-	-.1
Military science......	.7	.5	.7	.5	1.00	1.00	-	-
Architecture..........	2.0	2.1	1.7	1.6	.85	.76	-.3	-.5
Health................	14.4	15.3	14.4	16.8	1.00	1.10	-	+1.5
Communications........	3.7	3.6	3.8	3.6	1.03	1.00	+.1	-
Music.................	1.7	2.0	1.4	1.5	.82	.75	-.3	-.5
Computer science......	5.6	5.6	7.1	6.4	1.27	1.14	+1.5	+.8
Psychology............	3.4	2.6	4.1	3.5	1.21	1.35	+.7	+.9
Geography.............	.0	.0	.0	.0	1.00	1.00	-	-
Theater arts..........	1.4	1.1	1.1	.7	.79	.64	-.3	-.4
Forestry/conservation.	.9	1.1	.4	.6	.44	.55	-.5	-.5
Business..............	18.5	20.3	21.0	22.4	1.14	1.10	+2.5	+2.1
Art...................	3.9	4.3	3.6	3.2	.92	.74	-.3	-1.1
Education.............	5.7	8.2	4.7	6.9	.82	.84	-1.0	-1.3
Agriculture...........	1.5	1.9	.9	1.3	.60	.68	-.6	-.6
Home Economics........	.6	.6	.4	.5	.67	.83	-.2	-.1
Ethnic studies........	.0	.0	.0	.0	1.00	1.00	-	-
Trade/vocational......	1.1	2.0	.8	1.4	.73	.70	-.3	-.6

[1/] *In 1985, 34,522 Indiana students took the SAT.*

* *Indicates rate of change: Greater than 1.00 is increase, less than 1.00 is decrease.*

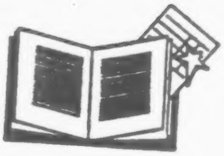
Source: *Admissions Testing Program, College-Bound Seniors, 1981 & 1985: National & Indiana (Table 14). New York: The College Board, 1981 & 1985.*

Indiana high school seniors who take the SATs have tended to select business, health, engineering, education, social sciences, and computer science for study in college, which is similar to the national trend. However, Indiana seniors, compared with U.S. seniors in general, are more interested in health, business, education, trade/vocational, and agriculture fields. They are less interested in engineering, social sciences, biological sciences, computer science, psychology, and English. Compared to the 1981 seniors, the 1985 Indiana seniors were more interested in business, health, psychology, computer science, and social sciences but less interested in education, art trade/vocational, agriculture, forestry and conservation, music, and architecture.

3. STUDENT ACADEMIC PREPARATION

A. Tested Ability or Achievement

(1) General Situation



> The past decade and a half has been a period of considerable change and turmoil in American education. The social and educational reforms of the late 1960s and early 1970s were followed first by the back to basics movement, and later by the reaffirmation of traditional academic goals as the central focus of schooling. The trends in reading proficiency between 1971 and 1984 suggest that these broad movements have indeed had their effects on improved student achievement.[1] (pp.7-8)
>
> While student test scores in the basic skills have rebounded from a long slide to levels of a decade ago, there remain large gaps in the education of America's children....
>
> - A 1984 National Assessment of Educational Progress study of student writing published in April found a "generally low level of writing proficiency," despite five years of steady improvement.
> - In a 1982 U.S. Study of math skills, students performed poorly on problems that required some analysis and ability to sort through information.
> - In the latest international study of mathematics, 12th graders in the U.S. scored much lower than Japanese students and well below the mean score of 15 industrialized nations.[2] (p.53)

A high level of academic ability is especially important for those students who plan or hope to continue their education beyond high school. However, ethnic-group differences observed with elementary and secondary school students are also evident with college students. For example, sophomores in Florida's public colleges and universities are required to pass all four parts of the state's "College-Level Academic Skills Test" before they can earn an associate-of-arts degree or continue as juniors.[3] In the March 1985 administration, while 94 percent of White sophomores passed all four parts, 84 percent of Hispanics and 64 percent of Blacks passed all four. It should be noted, however, that the institution with the lowest passing rate experienced an increase in the Black rate from 39 percent in 1983 to 61 percent in 1985.

In a major study of access to higher education in 1980,[4] it has been found that 7 of 10 "high-ability" high school seniors were still attending college two years after high school graduation, compared to only one of four "average-ability" seniors. High-ability seniors have also been twice as likely to major in technical fields than average-ability seniors. Moreover, students attending four-year colleges have scored higher on high school senior-year achievement tests than their two-year-college counterparts. Of special importance to the present report is the observation that Black and Hispanic students were the least represented high school seniors in the high-ability group.

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[1] National Assessment of Educational Progress, The Reading Report Card: Progress Toward Excellence in our Schools (Report No. 15-R-01). Princeton: Educational Testing Service, 1985. (See Attachment IV.)

[2] Lucia Solórzano, Dan Collins, Mary Galligan, Steve L. Hawkins, & Sarah Peterson. "Teaching in Trouble", U.S. News & World Report, May 26, 1986, pp. 52-57.

[3] Jean Evangelauf, "Sophomores in Fla. Public Colleges Must Pass a New Test of Their Academic Skills." The Chronicle of Higher Education, July 3, 1985, p. 10.

[4] Valerie Lee, Access to Higher Education: The Experience of Blacks, Hispanics and Low Socio-Economic Status Whites. Washington, D.C: American Council on Education, Division of Policy Analysis and Research, May 1985. (See Attachment III.)

In an examination of the educational status of Black Americans,[5] the College Entrance Examination Board observed the following:

> - The educational performance of black students in elementary and secondary schools, as measured by standardized achievement test scores, rose in many areas over the decade of the 1970s, but it remained lower than that of non-blacks by 1980.
> - The strongest gains in mathematics and reading test scores were registered by young black students, particularly those from urban, disadvantaged communities...
> - However, gains in mathematics and science were far less substantial than for reading, and black 17-year olds showed stable or declining scores on achievement measures in reading, mathematics, and science.
> - Black students of all ages performed better in the area of mathematical knowledge (factual recall) than in the area of mathematical skills (performing computations and manipulations), and least well in the area of mathematical applications (the ability to solve problems and use mathematical reasoning). (pp. 6-7)

TABLE 3-A1

SAMPLE: MINIMUM COMPETENCY TEST RESULTS..1986[1] BY RACE[1] FOR GRADE 9 - IN CENTRAL INDIANA

Subject	% of Students NOT Mastering Subject: All Students	Non-Black[2]	Black
Reading	13%	7%	25%
English	7%	4%	13%
Spelling	12%	9%	18%
Math	26%	15%	51%
Science	13%	8%	25%
Social Studies[3]	24%	20%	37%

[1] *Situation with approximately 60% White student body*

[2] *Includes Hispanics who also tend to score lower than Whites.*

[3] *Grade 11 only*

SOURCE: Confidential School District in Central Indiana. See Appendix 3-A1.

As shown in Table 3-A1 Blacks in a high Minority - concentrated school district have performed significantly lower on Indiana minimum competency tests in all subject areas than Non-Blacks. The need for special educational assistance to improve academic proficiencies of Minorities is exemplified by the observation that Blacks are three times as likely as Non-Blacks to fail the minimum competency tests in all subject areas except spelling, in which case they are twice as likely. Moreover, the situation worsens as students "progress" through the educational process (at least from grades 4 through 9: See Appendix 3-A1). Finally, other data show that lower competencies are characteristic of students from poverty and singlehead-of-household families as well.

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[5] The College Board. *Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black Americans* (Draft). New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, Jan. 1985. (See Attachment I.)

(2) Reading Proficiency: National Assessment

The National Assessment[1] has found that in 1984 students aged 9, 13 and 17 years old had better reading proficiency than same-age students in 1971, when assessment began. However, for the first two age groups, improvement stopped in 1980. Of special significance is that Minority and disadvantaged-urban students experienced marked improvements between 1971 and 1984 and have narrowed the gap between their performance and that of other students. However, in that the reading proficiency of Black and Hispanic students (at age 9, 13 and 17) is approximately the same as White students three to four years younger, they are in need of still further improvement. Thus, Minority students tend to read at approximately one proficiency level below White students. For example, while White 17-year-olds tend to read near the low-Adept level, Black and Hispanic 17-year-olds read at the Intermediate level (see Table 3-A2 and Figure 3-A1).

TABLE 3-A2

MEAN READING PROFICIENCY TEST SCORES: 1984

	9-year-olds	13-year-olds	17-year-olds
National Aver.	213.2	257.8	288.2
By Race:			
White	220.1	263.4	294.6
Hispanic	193.0	239.2	268.7
Black	188.4	236.8	263.5

"White" includes all students not Black or Hispanic (i.e., Asian, Native American).

Definitions (score range of 0 to 500)

150 - Rudimentary -- carry out simple, discrete reading tasks,
200 - Basic -- understand specific or sequentially-related simple information,
250 - Intermediate -- search for specific information, interrelate ideas, and make simple generalizations,
300 - Adept -- find, understand, summarize, and explain relatively complicated information, and
350 - Advanced -- synthesize and learn from specialized and complex reading materials.

NOTE: Comparable data for Indiana were not available to the authors.

SOURCE: National Assessment of Educational Progress, The Reading Report Card: Progress Toward Excellence in Our Schools. (Report No. 15-R-01). Princeton: Educational Testing Service, 1985. (See Attachment IV.)

Of special concern is the observation that, among pre-high school students (13-year-olds), whereas two of three White students are able to read at the Intermediate level, only one of three Black and Hispanic students are able to do so. Moreover, among pre-college students (17-year-olds), while almost half the White students can read at the Adept level, only one of five Black and Hispanic students can do so. Finally, critical to the question of ability to do college-level work, of the 17-year-olds, only one out of 17 White students and one out of 100 Minority students can read at the Advanced-proficiency level. (These proficiency deficiencies are probably similar for other abilities.)

In addition to the important differences in reading proficiencies between ethnic groups, there are also important differences by type of community (see Figures 3-A1 and 3-A2). The lowest average reading proficiencies are apparent for students who live in a disadvantaged urban community; scoring slightly higher are those in rural communities; and highest scores are made by student in advantaged urban communities.

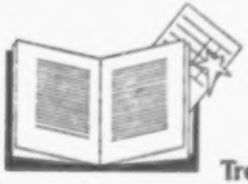
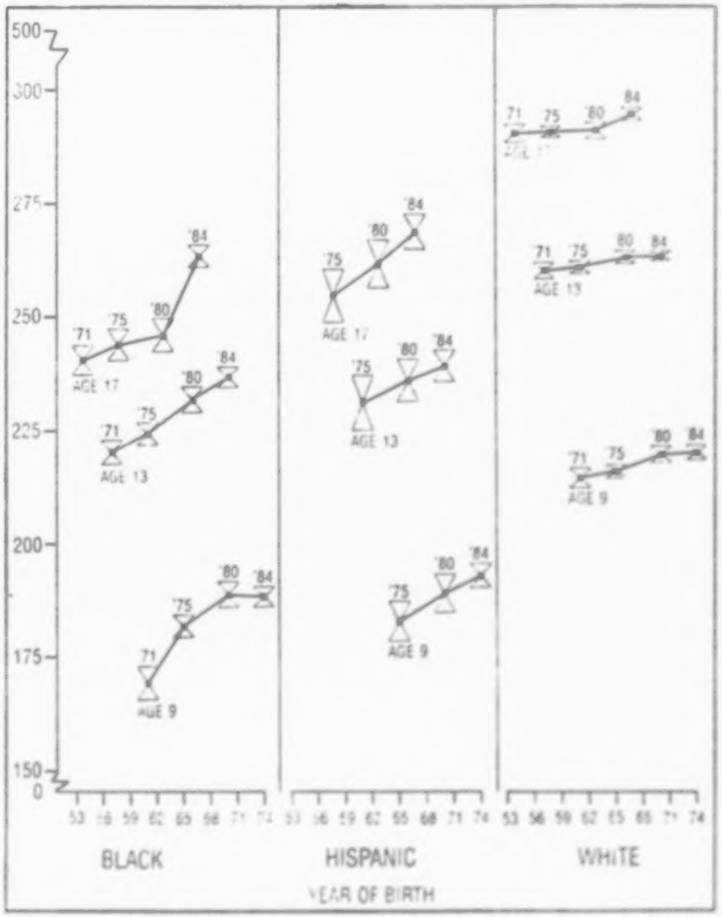


FIGURE 3-A1

Trends in Average Reading Proficiency for White, Black, and Hispanic Students by Year of Birth



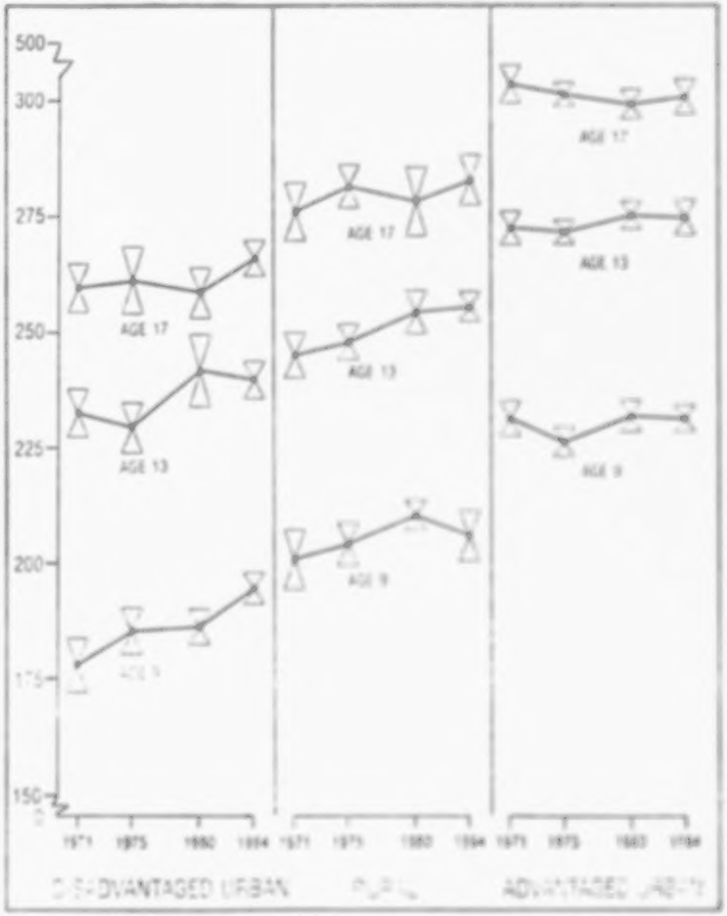
Birth Date Ranges
Age 9 Born Jan-Dec. 1961, 65, 70, 74
Age 13 Born Jan-Dec. 1957, 61, 66, 70
Age 17 Born Oct-Sept. 1953-54, 57-58, 62-63, 66-67

naep

⧗ = estimated population mean reading proficiency and 95% confidence interval. It can be said with 95 percent certainty that the mean reading proficiency of the population of interest is within this interval.

FIGURE 3-A2

Trends in Average Reading Proficiency for Type of Community



Birth Date Ranges
Age 9 Born Jan-Dec. 1961, 65, 70, 74
Age 13 Born Jan-Dec. 1957, 61, 66, 70
Age 17 Born Oct-Sept. 1953-54, 57-58, 62-63, 66-67

naep

⧗ = estimated population mean reading proficiency and 95% confidence interval. It can be said with 95 percent certainty that the mean reading proficiency of the population of interest is within this interval.

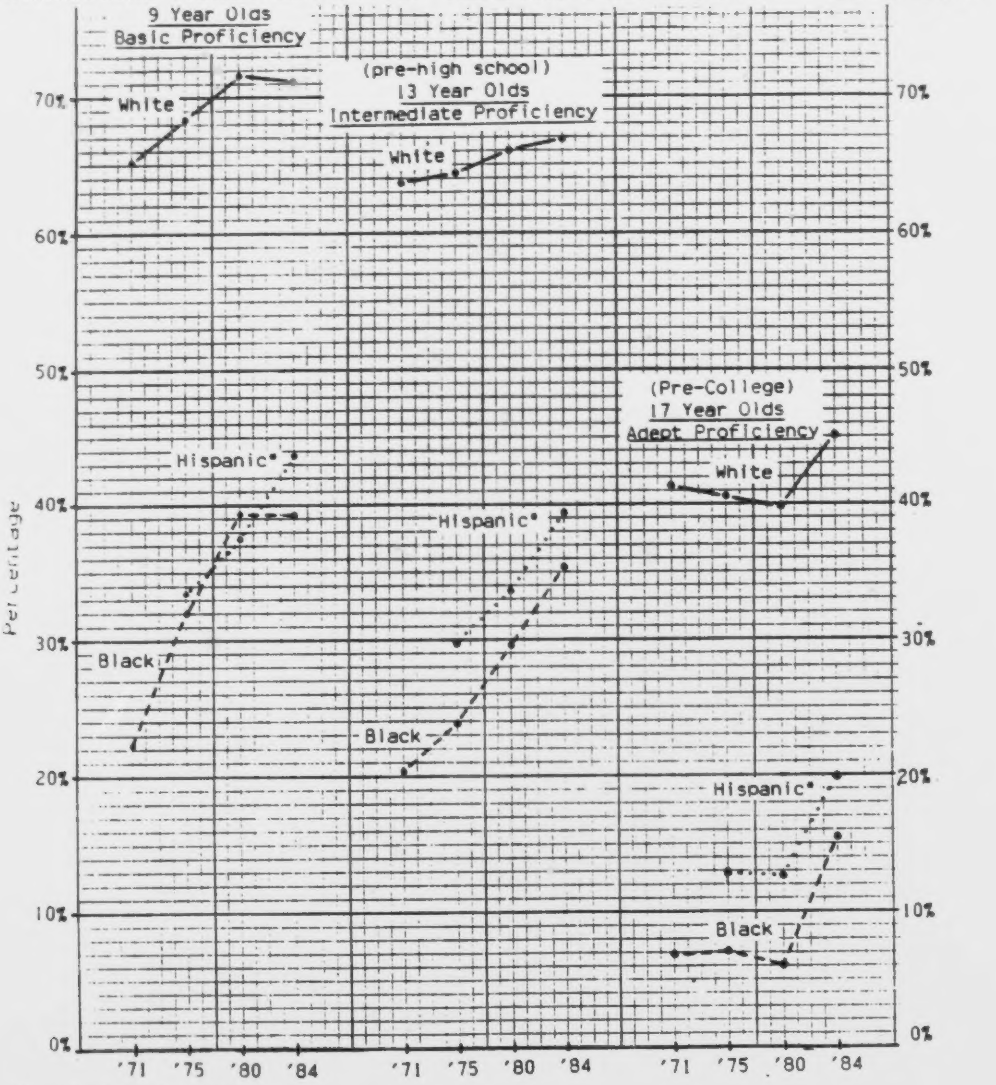
SOURCE: National Assessment of Educational Progress, The Reading Report Card: Progress Toward Excellence in Our Schools (Report No. 15-R-01). Princeton: ETS, 1985.

A comparison of three levels of reading proficiency by age and ethnic group (see Figure 3-A3) reveals:

- A gradual improvement from 1971 to 1984,
- More White students score higher at all grade levels,
- Lower proportions of students score at each higher level, and
- Only 15 percent of Black and 20 percent of Hispanic (pre-college age) 17-year-olds, attain an "adept reading proficiency", as compared to 45 percent of White students.

FIGURE 3-A3

PERCENT OF STUDENTS BY AGE AND ETHNIC GROUP EXHIBITING THREE LEVELS OF READING PROFICIENCY: 1971-1984



* No Hispanic data for 1971.

Basic Proficiency -- understand specific or sequentially-related simple information;
Intermediate Proficiency -- search for specific information, interrelate ideas, make simple generalizations;
Adept Proficiency -- find, understand, summarize, and explain relatively complicated information.

SOURCE: National Assessment of Educational Progress, The Reading Report Card: Progress Toward Excellence in Our Schools. (Report No. 15-R-01). Princeton: Educational Testing Service, 1985. (See Attachment IV.)

The National Assessment made several observations with respect to influences on reading proficiency:

> The influence of home environment is apparent from the positive relationship between reading proficiency and both available reading material in the home and level of parental education....
>
> Six or more hours of TV viewing per day is consistently and strongly related to lower reading proficiency for all three age groups. In 1984, fully 27 percent of 9-year-olds reported watching more than six hours of television per day, up from 18 percent four years earlier.
>
> In general, students who receive homework assignments and do them tend to read better than students who do not have homework or who do not do it.[7] (p. 7)

However, with respect to developing reading proficiency, "the reduction of television watching in and of itself without substituting reading activities, homework, or other related experiences seems unlikely to be effective" (p. 55).

Results from the 1984 assessment

> suggest two agendas for the future: continued special attention to disadvantaged and minority children and increased emphasis on higher-level reading skills for all...
>
> Yet improvements in higher-level reading skills cannot come about simply by an emphasis on reading instruction in isolation from the other work students do in school. To foster higher-level literacy skills is to place a new and special emphasis on thoughtful, critical elaboration of ideas and understanding drawn from the material students read and from what they already know.[7] (p. 8)

(3) Scholastic Aptitude Test Results: U.S. and Indiana

Since hitting an all-time low in 1980, scores on the College Entrance Examination Board's Scholastic Aptitude Tests (SATs) have steadily but gradually increased through 1985.[6,7] Although the greatest increases have occurred for Minority students (those who anticipate a college education), they are still well below those for White students. The one exception involves Asian Americans, who are comparable to White students. Although students since 1980 have been achieving improved SAT scores, their scores still remain well below the peak achieved in 1963. Similar results have also been observed with American College Testing program tests.[8]

---

[6] Pat Ordovensky, "SATs Up 9, 'Education on Mend'." USA Today, Tuesday, Sept. 24, 1985.

[7] Bureau of the Census, Education in the United States: 1940-1983, Special Demographic Analysis (CDS-85-1). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Dept. of Commerce.

[8] W. B. Strange, "College Admissions Testing Programs" (Memorandum), Ind. Dept. of Education. Oct. 14, 1983.

About 34,520 Hoosiers took the SATs in 1985. The proportion of Hoosiers taking the test was higher than the National average, but Hoosiers scores were lower (e.g., mean total SAT score was 906 Nationally and 875 for Indiana.) The distribution by ethnic group of Hoosiers taking the 1985 SAT (self-reported by the student) was as shown at right. With the exception of Asian-Americans, Minorities taking the SAT tests were under-represented (when compared to their proportion of the population).

	Number	% of Total
White	28,368	82.2%
MINORITIES	2,786	8.0%
Black	1,764	5.1%
Hispanic	406	1.2%
Mexican Am.	274	.8%
Puerto Rican	132	.4%
Amer. Indiana	117	.3%
Asian-American	325	.9%
Other	174	.5%
No (ethnic) Response	3,368	9.8%

The highest scores were attained by Asian-Americans, followed by White students (see Table 3-A3). The scores of Black students were lowest of all groups. It is apparent that, in nearly all cases, Indiana student scores were below those of the U.S. There are two notable exceptions: the Asian Americans and Hispanics on Indiana score higher in the Verbal tests than the U.S. Also noteworthy is the fact that, although White students in Indiana averaged more than 20 points below the U.S., Minorities in Indiana were only four points below the U.S.

TABLE 3-A3

SAT SCORE COMPARISONS FOR THE U.S. AND INDIANA BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1985

	Verbal		Math		Total	
	U.S.	IN.	U.S.	IN.	U.S.	IN.
ALL STUDENTS	431	415	475	460	906	875
White	449	425	491	470	940	895
MINORITIES	359	355	411	407	770	783
Black	346	336	376	369	722	705
Hispanic	377	383	423	418	800	801
Mexican Amer.	382	380	426	420	808	800
Puerto Rican	368	389	419	415	777	804
Amer. Indian	392	386	428	427	820	813
Asian-American	404	426	518	515	922	941
Other	391	380	448	436	839	816
No (ethnic) Response	NA	380	NA	420	NA	800

Source: The College Board.

Indiana high school seniors have attained lower average SAT scores than U.S. students in general, at least since 1976 (See Table 3-A4). These average score differences are due primarily to score differences between Indiana and U.S. White students. Although SAT scores had been declining, the last four years have witnessed increases. However, White score means are still slightly below 1976 averages, while score means for Minority groups (especially Blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians) are appreciably higher than their 1976 averages -- true for both Indiana and the U.S. As a result, although average scores for Minority groups have been and remain appreciably below White student averages, the gap has been narrowing.

TABLE 3-A4
SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE TEST (SAT) AVERAGES FOR THE UNITED STATES AND INDIANA BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1976-1985

Verbal

	Geo.	Year, Spring H.S. Seniors										Mean-Point Change			S.D.
	Area	'76	'77	'78	'79	'80	'81	'82	'83	'84	'85	'76-'85	'80-'85	'84-'85	'85
Total Population	U.S.	431	429	429	427	424	424	426	425	426	431	0	+ 7	+ 5	110
	IN	415	412	413	412	407	406	407	410	410	415	0	+ 8	+ 5	99
White	U.S.	451	448	446	444	442	442	444	443	445	449	- 2	+ 7	+ 4	103
	IN	428	424	423	422	418	417	417	420	420	425	- 3	+ 7	+ 5	96
Minority*	U.S.	350	346	344	342	343	343	346	348	349	359	+ 9	+16	+10	134
	IN	347	337	346	346	334	334	347	347	353	355	+ 8	+21	+ 2	116
Black	U.S.	332	330	332	330	330	332	341	339	342	346	+14	+16	+ 4	96
	IN	329	325	323	326	320	320	324	330	331	336	+ 7	+16	+ 5	85
Hispanic*	U.S.	369	365	363	362	365	366	372	369	368	377	+ 8	+11	+ 9	102
	IN	353	369	361	367	360	361	363	374	378	383	+30	+23	+ 5	96
Mexican American	U.S.	371	370	370	370	372	373	377	375	376	382	+11	+10	+ 6	100
	IN	354	372	360	367	353	353	357	370	373	380	+26	+27	+ 7	100
Puerto Rican	U.S.	364	355	349	345	350	353	360	358	358	368	+ 4	+18	+10	107
	IN	348	362	362	367	375	382	380	381	390	389	+41	+14	- 1	88
American Indian	U.S.	388	390	387	386	390	391	388	388	390	392	+ 4	+ 2	+ 2	107
	IN	351	359	368	357	362	366	363	367	374	386	+35	+24	+12	98
Oriental American	U.S.	414	405	401	396	396	397	398	395	398	404	-10	+ 8	+ 6	130
	IN	422	439	424	395	402	388	404	413	397	426	+ 4	+24	+29	129
Other	U.S.	410	402	399	393	394	388	392	386	388	391	-19	- 3	+ 3	121
	IN	413	407	420	389	376	365	384	408	391	380	-33	+ 4	-11	109

Math

	Geo.	Year, Spring H.S. Seniors										Mean-Point Change			S.D.
	Area	'76	'77	'78	'79	'80	'81	'82	'83	'84	'85	'76-'85	'80-'85	'84-'85	'85
Total Population	U.S.	472	470	468	467	466	466	467	468	471	475	+ 3	+ 9	+ 4	119
	IN	460	458	457	455	450	451	453	454	454	460	0	+10	+ 6	112
White	U.S.	493	489	485	483	482	483	483	484	487	491	- 2	+ 9	+ 4	114
	IN	475	471	468	467	462	463	465	466	465	470	- 5	+ 8	+ 5	109
Minority*	U.S.	389	388	384	386	388	389	396	399	406	411	+22	+23	+ 5	139
	IN	381	384	381	372	371	375	379	376	394	407	+26	+36	+13	132
Black	U.S.	354	357	354	358	360	362	366	369	373	376	+22	+16	+ 3	96
	IN	353	353	343	354	350	349	351	357	362	369	+16	+19	+ 7	96
Hispanic*	U.S.	407	404	397	403	407	409	412	412	415	423	+16	+14	+ 8	107
	IN	393	407	404	406	403	399	401	407	423	418	+25	+15	- 5	108
Mexican American	U.S.	410	408	402	410	413	415	416	417	420	426	+16	+13	+ 6	106
	IN	396	407	402	406	400	394	397	400	421	420	+24	+20	- 1	113
Puerto Rican	U.S.	401	397	388	388	394	398	403	403	405	419	+18	+25	+14	109
	IN	382	408	409	404	408	411	412	419	428	415	+33	+ 7	-13	99
American Indian	U.S.	420	421	419	421	426	425	424	425	427	428	+ 8	+ 2	+ 1	113
	IN	410	404	420	407	418	405	406	407	407	427	+17	+ 9	+20	111
Oriental American	U.S.	518	514	510	511	509	513	513	514	519	518	0	+ 9	- 1	127
	IN	506	511	497	479	496	491	495	504	491	515	+ 9	+19	+24	146
Other	U.S.	458	457	450	447	449	447	449	446	450	448	-10	- 1	- 2	125
	IN	443	451	462	443	430	430	434	442	437	436	- 7	+ 6	- 1	123

**Estimated   U.S. - United States   IN - Indiana   S.D. - Standard Deviation*

SOURCE: *College Entrance Examination Board, Admissions Testing Program.*

There are considerable variations between the mean total SAT scores and intended fields of study. Table 3-A5 presents a U.S. rank order listing starting with a mean total score of 1075 for seniors who chose Physical Science, down to 737 for Trade/Vocational. The differences between U.S. and Indiana scores are shown for each field of study.

TABLE 3-A5

AVERAGE TOTAL SCORES ON SCHOLASTIC APTITUDE TESTS BY 1985 H.S. SENIORS' INTENDED FIELD OF STUDY.

	Total SAT Score Means				Total SAT Score Means		
	U.S.	IN.	Diff.		U.S.	IN.	Diff.
Physical Sciences...	1075	1034	- 41	AVERAGE..............	906	875	- 31 ▸
Mathematics.........	1037	1004	- 33				
English.............	1025	1008	- 17	Computer Science......	901	907	+ 6 ▸
Engineering.........	998	979	- 19	Psychology............	895	882	- 13
Biological Sciences.	996	967	- 29	Geography.............	891	882	- 9
Foreign Language....	981	959	- 22	Theater Arts..........	888	879	- 9
History.............	981	897	- 84	Forestry/Conservation.	875	809	- 66
Philosophy/Religion.	970	937	- 33	Business..............	862	830	- 32
Social Sciences.....	947	899	- 48	Art...................	839	812	- 27
Undecided...........	934	894	- 40	Education.............	836	830	- 6
Library Science.....	929	908	- 21	Agriculture...........	833	825	- 8
Military Science....	912	936	+ 24 ▸	Home Economics........	793	756	- 37
Architecture........	910	893	- 17	Ethnic Studies........	769	-	-
Health..............	909	887	- 22	Trade/Vocational......	737	749	+ 12 ▸
Communications......	906	874	- 32				
Music...............	906	883	- 23				

SOURCE: Admissions Testing Program, College-Bound Seniors, 1985: National & Indiana. New York: The College Board, Sept. 1985.

This can help one to form some generalizations about the relationships between SAT scores and intended fields of study. In general, and not surprising to most, is that Physical and Biological Sciences, Math, Engineering, English and Foreign languages are more likely to be chosen by high school seniors who achieve the highest SAT scores. The pattern of Hoosiers' SAT test scores (which are lower than the National averages), generally parallel the National listing, but there are some notable exceptions. Among major differences are scores for History, Forestry/Conservation, Social Sciences, Phyiscal Science and Home Economics students, where Indiana scores are much lower than the U.S. mean. "Bucking the trend" are Military Science, Trade/Vocational and Computer Science students, where Hoosiers actually score higher than the U.S. mean.

Admissions Testing Program of the College Board

(4) American College Testing Program: U.S. and Indiana

Although Indiana students across the years have consistently scored on average below U.S. students in general on SATs, they have scored consistently above average on the ACT scales. Note that, while nearly 120 percent of Indiana college-bound high school seniors have tended to take the SAT (well above the national average), less than 10 percent have tended to take the ACT program tests (below the national average), although this percentage almost doubled in 1982-83. Thus, Indiana college-bound students are probably closer to the national average of measured ability or achievement either SAT or ACT tests indicate.

Both Indiana and the U.S. in general experienced a major decline in average scores across the years from 1970 through 1983 for the Math, Social Studies and Composite ACT scores, as well as a slight decline for English scores and no change or slight increase for Science scores (see Table 3-A6).

TABLE 3-A6

AMERICAN COLLEGE TESTING (ACT) AVERAGES FOR THE UNITED STATES AND INDIANA: 1970, 1973-1983

TEST	Geo. Area	Year, Spring H.S. Seniors											
		'70	'73	'74	'75	'76	'77	'78	'79	'80	'81	'82	'83
English	U.S.	18.5	18.1	17.9	17.7	17.5	17.7	17.9	17.9	17.9	17.8	17.9	17.8
	IN.	18.9	18.6	18.4	18.2	18.3	18.3	18.5	18.6	18.3	18.2	18.5	18.4
Math	U.S.	20.0	19.1	18.3	17.6	17.5	17.4	17.5	17.5	17.4	17.3	17.2	16.9
	IN.	20.8	19.9	19.2	18.6	18.3	18.6	18.3	18.3	17.9	17.7	18.0	18.1
Social Studies	U.S.	19.7	18.3	18.1	17.4	17.0	17.3	17.1	17.2	17.2	17.2	17.3	17.1
	IN.	20.5	19.3	19.3	18.7	18.5	18.6	18.2	18.2	18.0	18.2	18.3	18.0
Science	U.S.	20.8	20.8	20.8	21.1	20.8	20.9	20.9	21.1	21.1	21.0	20.8	20.9
	IN.	21.0	21.0	21.3	21.6	21.4	21.4	21.3	21.3	21.4	21.4	21.5	21.5
Composite	U.S.	19.9	19.2	18.9	18.6	18.3	18.4	18.5	18.6	18.5	18.5	18.4	18.3
	IN.	20.5	19.8	19.7	19.4	19.3	19.4	19.2	19.2	19.0	19.0	19.2	19.1

Source: W. B. Strange, "College Admissions Testing Programs" (Memorandum), Indiana Dept. of Education, October 14, 1983.

B. Educational Needs

> American schools can ... take considerable pride in the improving trends in students' reading proficiency over the past 13 years. At the same time, the results from the 1984 assessment suggest two agendas for the future: continued special attention to disadvantaged and minority children and increased emphasis on higher-level reading skills for all.
>
> ...The improvements during the past decade provide a good foundation for further reductions in, and the eventual elimination of, the gaps in performance that still remain between disadvantaged and advantaged....
>
> Attention to ... higher-level reading skills has already begun in many schools across the country; the challenge will be to ensure that all students have the opportunity to develop such skills. There has been a conceptual shift in the way many researchers and teachers think about reading, which gives students a much more active role in the learning and reading comprehension process. This shift is reflected in changes from packaged reading programs to experiences with books and from concentration on isolated skills to practical reading and writing activities.
>
> Yet, improvements in higher-level reading skills cannot come about simply by an emphasis on reading instruction in isolation from the other work students do in school. To foster higher-level literacy skills is to place a new and special emphasis on thoughtful, critical elaboration of ideas and understandings drawn from the material students read and from what they already know. They must learn to value their own ideas and to defend as well as question their interpretations in the face of alternative or opposing points of view.
>
> The development of such thoughtful, creative approaches to learning runs counter to much of what students are asked to do in school. Reading in schools is sometimes a relatively superficial activity, a prelude to a recitation of what others have said.... In developing higher-level reading skills and strategies, students will benefit from experience with a wide range of challenging materials. Though there has been considerable concern with providing students with "readable" texts -- and a concomitant simplification of instructional materials -- this may have inadvertently reduced students' opportunities to develop comprehension strategies for dealing with more complicated material that presents new ideas.
>
> There are opportunities for such experiences in all of the subjects students study in school, as well as in what they read at home. They can learn to develop their own interpretations of what they read, to question, rethink, and elaborate upon the ideas and information drawn from their reading experiences -- in conversations with their friends, in discussions with their teachers, and in the writing they do for themselves and others. And in that process, students will also be acquiring the higher-level reading comprehension skills that so many are presently lacking[1] (pp. 8-9, underline added)

A major review study of the quality of various academic skills found that

> Disappointing trends in performance for older students, both black and white, and on higher order cognitive tasks in reading, writing, mathematics, and science reflect disturbing changes in educational methods over the last decade. Between 1972 and 1980, use of teaching methods that might encourage the development of higher order thinking abilities -- project or laboratory work, writing tasks, and student-centered discussion -- declined in public high schools.[2] (p. 7)

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[1] National Assessment of Educational Progress, The Reading Report Card: Progress Toward Excellence in our Schools. (Report No. 15-R-01).

[2] The College Board, Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black Americans. New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, 1985. (See Attachment I.)

> While student test scores in the basic skills have rebounded from a long slide to levels of a decade ago, there remain large gaps in the education of America's children. Schools are not developing in students the ability to analyze and assimilate the knowledge they must have to compete in tomorrow's high-tech world. While 99 percent of the nation's 17-year-olds can demonstrate basic reading skills, fewer than 40 percent are able to comprehend, summarize and explain what they have read....
>
> The acquisition of skills such as writing, reasoning and critical thinking, which had not been emphasized until recently, are essential to dealing with today's explosion of information.[3] (p.53)

Inadequate basic skill preparation has also been addressed in the most recent annual report of the Indiana Commission for Higher Education:

> Improving the Preparation of Students for College Level Work
>
> Through its analyses of minority participation and of the extent to which enrolled students are engaged in remedial work, the Commission has determined that a substantial problem impeding student success in Indiana higher education is inadequate basic skills preparation. The Commission also believes that the basic skills needed for going to college are the same basic skills needed for entering the workplace.
>
> Conclusion: A comprehensive long-range plan for improving our students' preparation for college and for work is necessary.[4] (p.9)

High school academic programs pursued by Minority students tend to differ in type and content from those pursued by Whites.[2,5,6] These differences in educational substance import critical implications for educational achievement (e.g., necessitating remedial and compensatory education) and for later educational and career options.

- ▶ Blacks are disproportionately more likely to be enrolled in special education programs and less likely to be enrolled in programs for the gifted and talented than are whites. However, these proportions vary widely across school districts, suggesting that administrative policies and practices affect placement as much as do student characteristics.
- ▶ At the high school level, blacks are underrepresented in academic programs and are overrepresented in vocational education programs where they receive less educational preparation in areas like English, mathematics, and science, and they lose ground in terms of educational achievement.
- ▶ Furthermore, black students in vocational education programs are enrolled earlier and more extensively in programs training specially for low-status occupations than are white students. Typically, these assignments are made by school personnel rather than by election of students or their parents. [NOTE: Such assignments do not seem to occur in Indiana in general.]

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[3] Lucia Solórzano, Dan Collins, Mary Galligan, Steve L. Hawkins, & Sarah Peterson. "Teaching in Trouble", U.S. News & World Report, May 26, 1986, pp. 52-57.

[4] Indiana Commission for Higher Education, Annual Report (Draft), Indianapolis, IN., March 1986.

[5] Southern Regional Education Board, The Enrollment of Black Students in Higher Education: Can Declines Be Prevented? Atlanta: 1340 Spring Street N.W., 30309. (Reported by Scott Jaschik, "Decline in Enrollment of Blacks Seen Unless States Start New Programs." The Chronicle of Higher Education, Jan. 8, 1986.)

[6] American Council on Education, "Dim Outlook for Minorities in Higher Ed Continues." Higher Education & National Affairs, Vol. 34 (No.19), Oct. 14, 1985, pp.1,5. (Newsletter of the ACE)

> - Among college-bound seniors in 1981, most blacks had taken fewer years of coursework in mathematics, physical sciences, and social studies than their white counterparts. Even where years of coursework are similar, the content of courses varies for black and white students. For example, black seniors in 1980 were as likely as whites to have taken at least three years of math, but they were much less likely to have taken algebra, geometry, trigonometry, or calculus. Thus, their years of coursework must have been concentrated in areas like general math or business math.
>
> - Students in low-income and predominately minority schools have less access to microcomputers and to teachers trained in the uses of computers. Furthermore, students in predominately minority schools or classrooms are much more likely to use computers for drill-and-practice rather than programming or concept development than students in other schools.
>
> Overall, the evidence suggests that black students are exposed to less challenging educational program offerings which are less likely to enhance the development of higher order cognitive skills and abilities than are white students.[2] (pp.7-8)

According to Clifton R. Wharton, Chancellor of the State University of New York,

> Improving black students' self-esteem would better their academic performance and decrease the rate at which they drop out of college....
>
> High dropout rates and low academic achievement among many college-age blacks show that they are "crying out for a massive infusion of self-esteem,"....
>
> Confidence in their ability to achieve must be expressed to them from "society as a whole, but most directly from the black community itself." he said.
>
> The black family -- long the major source of pride and self-confidence for black youth -- has been attacked by a variety of social ills....
>
> Such problems have eroded educational gains for blacks. ... [T]hose who reach college are more likely than whites to be academically "unprepared" to succeed....
>
> Consequently, many white faculty members and administrative employees ... automatically link black students to programs associated with academic deficiencies....
>
> Such views reinforce racial stereotypes, he said, and send a signal to black students that "excellence is for other folks, not you."...
>
> ... In addition, ... black families must reinforce the importance of education and demand high achievement and hard work from college students.[1] (p.3)

Students taking the SAT are asked if they plan to request special help in certain types of skills and counseling. The responses generally reflect many of the strengths and deficiencies noted in their tested proficiencies while in lower grades. There are considerable differences between Whites and Minorities. For example, in Indiana 18 percent of the Whites plan to request special help in mathematics, while 34.4 percent of the Blacks expect to do so. See Table 3-B1 for more comparisons.

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[1] *Gaynelle Evans, "Boost in Black's Self-Esteem Seen Raising Academic Rank."* __*The Chronicle of Higher Education*__*, July 30, 1986, p.3.*

TABLE 3-B1

SELF-REPORTED PLANS TO REQUEST SPECIAL HELP OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS COMPLETING THE "STUDENT DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE" OF THE COLLEGE BOARD'S ADMISSIONS TESTING PROGRAM FOR THE UNITED STATES, MIDWEST, AND INDIANA: 1985

PLANS TO REQUEST SPECIAL HELP:	Geo. Area	All Students	White	ALL MINORITY								
				Total*	Black	Hispanic			Amer. Indian	Oriental American	Other	Not Reported
						Total*	Mex.Amer.	P.Rican				
Educational counseling	US	33.9%	35.3%	29.5%	30.5%	40.4%	42.5%	36.7%	34.0%	41.0%	35.2%	9.0%
	MW	37.0	38.1	30.5	32.7	39.2	40.5	36.8	33.3	42.2	37.3	12.1
	IN	34.2	35.2	27.4	29.7	35.1	34.2	36.9	32.8	39.3	31.2	16.5
Voc./career counseling	US	24.9%	25.7%	22.4%	24.1%	28.1%	30.2%	24.3%	23.5%	31.8%	26.2%	6.7%
	MW	26.6	27.5	21.3	24.4	28.4	30.0	25.3	21.2	28.3	23.8	5.7
	IN	24.4	25.0	20.3	23.7	27.9	27.2	29.5	23.1	24.9	23.1	10.1
Mathematical skills	US	17.7%	16.5%	21.4%	30.2%	26.2%	38.6%	22.0%	22.3%	19.5%	21.1%	6.5%
	MW	16.8	15.8	22.7	32.1	24.3	25.2	22.7	20.0	18.8	21.2	5.7
	IN	18.9	18.0	25.0	34.4	27.3	27.5	26.8	20.9	24.6	21.1	10.3
Reading skills	US	9.4%	8.8%	11.3%	11.5%	13.9%	15.1%	11.8%	10.1%	19.2%	12.1%	2.4%
	MW	9.7	9.4	11.5	12.4	12.7	12.7	12.6	9.6	20.0	10.9	3.3
	IN	8.6	8.3	10.6	12.7	15.4	16.6	12.8	12.7	21.4	12.1	2.2
Writing skills	US	14.8%	13.9%	17.6%	19.2%	21.4%	23.5%	17.7%	17.1%	27.9%	18.8%	3.7%
	MW	14.0	13.4	17.6	20.1	19.4	19.7	18.7	16.7	25.9	19.0	5.3
	IN	12.8	12.5	14.8	17.4	19.7	20.4	18.1	17.9	25.8	16.6	5.4
Study skills	US	23.6%	23.4%	24.2%	32.8%	29.4%	32.2%	24.5%	28.0%	24.1%	23.8%	7.6%
	MW	23.3	22.7	26.9	34.7	28.2	28.9	26.9	25.6	24.5	27.3	11.5
	IN	25.5	25.1	28.2	36.4	33.1	33.5	32.2	32.1	30.2	32.7	11.7
Total seeking help	US	80.3%	81.3%	77.2%	94.1%	91.8%	92.9%	89.8%	88.8%	89.4%	87.3%	26.2%
	MW	81.5	81.8	79.7	94.9	90.1	91.5	87.4	88.7	87.8	87.6	34.4
	IN	83.1	83.7	79.0	95.5	93.8	92.7	96.0	89.6	89.4	89.4	41.6

* *Estimated;* US - *United States;* MW - *Midwest;* IN - *Indiana*

SOURCES: *College-Bound Seniors, 1985: National, Midwestern, and Indiana Reports*, College Board, Admissions Testing Program, 1985.

In general, proportionately more Indiana students than U.S. students reported needs in mathematical skills and study skills, but U.S. students were more in need of help in reading skills and writing skills. In Indiana, proportionately more White than Minority students reported needs in educational and vocational/career counseling. The greater detailed differences in Indiana's students included:

(1) The relatively high proportions of Blacks and Hispanics needing help in math and study skills,
(2) The need for reading skills help by Oriental Americans and Hispanics,
(3) The need for writing skills help by Oriental Americans in particular, as well as by Hispanics and Blacks.

NOTE: Approximately 80% of all students who took the SAT reported they plan to request help in one or more of the areas listed.

TABLE 3-B2

SELF-REPORTED PLANS TO REQUEST SPECIAL HELP OF HIGH SCHOOL SENIORS COMPLETING THE "STUDENT DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE" OF THE COLLEGE BOARD'S ADMISSIONS TESTING PROGRAM FOR INDIANA: 1981, 1983, 1985

PLANS TO REQUEST SPECIAL HELP:	Year	All Students	White	ALL MINORITY								
						Hispanic						
				Total*	Black	Total*	Mex.Amer.	P.Rican	Amer. Indian	Oriental American	Other	Not Reported
Educational counseling	'81	32.4%	33.0%	28.1%	32.5%	29.3%	28.7%	31.0%	32.0%	36.6%	32.9%	16.8%
	'83	33.6	34.4	28.0	31.8	31.2	31.9	29.9	25.0	43.9	32.8	16.5
	'85	34.2	35.2	27.4	29.7	35.1	34.2	36.9	32.8	39.3	31.2	16.5
Voc./career counseling	'81	26.3%	26.8%	22.7%	26.6%	27.7%	28.4%	25.9%	23.5%	25.6%	23.2%	13.4%
	'83	26.0	26.5	22.5	26.5	28.7	30.8	25.0	21.2	23.0	20.2	14.3
	'85	24.4	25.0	20.3	23.7	27.9	27.2	29.5	23.1	24.9	23.1	10.1
Mathematical skills	'81	16.7%	15.5%	25.4%	32.9%	25.7%	23.3%	31.9%	18.3%	16.9%	21.3%	15.5%
	'83	18.4	17.2	26.8	36.1	26.0	26.5	25.0	22.0	25.1	22.2	13.5
	'85	18.9	18.0	25.0	34.4	27.3	27.5	26.8	20.9	24.6	21.1	10.3
Reading skills	'81	10.3%	9.8%	13.9%	16.1%	12.6%	11.8%	14.7%	13.1%	25.2%	15.5%	8.1%
	'83	9.2	8.8	12.0	15.0	11.1	12.7	8.3	6.8	15.7	10.1	7.4
	'85	8.6	8.3	10.6	12.7	15.4	16.6	12.8	12.7	21.4	12.1	2.2
Writing skills	'81	11.5%	11.1%	14.4%	17.5%	15.8%	16.9%	12.9%	11.8%	24.4%	21.3%	5.6%
	'83	11.9	11.5	14.7	20.0	14.3	14.2	14.6	10.6	19.2	16.2	5.2
	'85	12.8	12.5	14.8	17.4	19.7	20.4	18.1	17.9	25.8	16.6	5.4
Study skills	'81	23.6%	22.7%	30.1%	37.6%	27.9%	28.4%	26.7%	27.5%	22.4%	27.1%	20.2%
	'83	23.9	23.3	28.1	38.0	25.5	25.8	25.0	24.2	20.9	22.7	15.7
	'85	25.5	25.1	28.2	36.4	33.1	33.5	32.2	32.1	30.2	32.7	11.7
Total seeking help	'81	80.5%	80.3%	81.9%	94.9%	90.3%	90.5%	89.7%	86.9%	87.8%	86.0%	54.1%
	'83	82.3	82.5	80.9	95.9	90.1	91.5	87.5	85.6	89.5	85.4	50.0
	'85	83.1	83.7	79.0	95.5	93.8	92.7	96.0	89.6	89.4	89.4	41.6

* *Estimated*

SOURCES: *College-Bound Seniors, 1985: National, Midwestern, and Indiana Reports, College Board, Admissions Testing Program, 1985.*

From 1981 to 1985, all ethnic groups in Indiana expressed increasing need for special academic help, although each Minority group remained substantially higher. The greatest expressed needs were for educational and vocational or career counseling and for study skills. White students expressed increasing need for special help with educational counseling, math skills, writing skills, and study skills but less need for vocational or career counseling and reading skills. Black students expressed increasing need for only math skills help but decreasing need for special help with educational and vocational or career counseling, reading skills, and study skills. Hispanic students expressed increasing needs for special help in all areas except vocational or career counseling.

4. SOCIO-ECONOMIC TRENDS

A. Illegitimate Births

(1) General Situation

> ... every day in America, 40 teen-age girls give birth to their THIRD child. To be the third child of a child is to be very much "at risk" in terms of one's future.[1] (p.3)

A recent, special CBS report, "The Vanishing Family -- Crisis in Black America," confronted

> a problem only recently readmitted to public debate after 20 years of obfuscation and taboo.... Listening to the bewildered young women who are "married to welfare" in order to support their children, and the aimless young men whose idea of fatherhood ends with the sex act, Mr. [Bill] Moyers was refreshingly judgmental, coming out frequently with such comments as: "Do you every think that maybe you shouldn't do it unless you can be sure you don't have a kid?"...
>
> It's impressive to see Mr. Moyers take up this topic again, considering that he was witness to the last failed attempt to put the problem on the national agenda. What he did, back in 1965 when he was press secretary to President Lyndon Johnson, was publicize a report by then Assistant Secretary of Labor Daniel Patrick Moynihan, which warned that family dissolution among poor blacks might cancel out the progress made by the civil-rights movement.
>
> ... The Moynihan Report attracted so much furious denunciation over the following few years, it became impossible to express concern about the skyrocketing rates of black illegitimacy (currently 58%), and of teen-age pregnancy among black Americans (the highest in the developed world), without being called a racist.[2] (p.22)

However, as one teenage mother told Mr. Moyers, "I'm sick and tired of just laying back waiting for a welfare check. I say, 'This is not how I want to live the rest of my life. This is not the way I planned for my future to be.'"[2] (p.22)

> Joyce Ladner, chairman of a panel on Teenage Pregnancy Prevention in the nation's capital, said it is time to "bring young men into the picture." For too long, she said, the social work network has ignored the young men who father children out of wedlock. "Is the United States willing to support a permanent group of people who will never have effective participation in the labor force?" she asked.[3] (p.7)

According to Rep. Harold Ford, chairman of a House subcommittee on public assistance, "Half of all Black teenage girls become pregnant. The fastest growing black family formation today is that headed by single teenager mothers."[3] (p.7)

> A new study by the non profit Center for Population Options said Tuesday that teenage pregnancies cost the American taxpayer at least $16.6 billion in 1985 -- nearly double the cost 10 years ago.[3] (p.7)

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[1] Harold L. Hodgkinson, All One System: Demographics of Education, Kindergarten through Graduate School. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc., 1985.

[2] CBS Reports, "The Vanishing Family -- Crisis in Black America" aired 25 Jan. 1986. Reported by Martha Bayles, "Sex and the Single Teen," The Wall Street Journal, Mon. 27 Jan. 1986, p.22.

[3] UPI Release, "House Cites Problems of Single Parenthood, Poverty among Blacks." The Purdue Exponent, Wed. Feb. 19, 1986, p.7.

> Teen-age girls who have children are more likely than their peers to drop out of school and become dependent on government assistance.... And families headed by young mothers are seven times more likely to live in poverty.
>
> Although the nation spends billions of dollars a year on teen-age mothers and their children, there is no focused approach to solving the problems of teen pregnancy at any level of government....
>
> Chairman George Miller said more attention should be paid to preventing teen-age girls from becoming pregnant: "We're spending billions, but we're spending money to pick up the pieces. It's all to deal with the results of a tragic situation."[4] (p.1)

Although teenage illegitimacy is a growing problem, illegitimacy is a greater problem among adult women, especially Black women. One major reason for high illegitimacy rates among non-teenage Black women may be the under-supply of Black adult men (by 1.5 million) for the Black adult women.[5] There are 25 percent more Black adult women than Black adult men in the U.S. (compared to a 10% difference for the White population). Consequently, many Black women may be opting for children and a family outside of marriage.

"Illegitimacy" is typically defined according to the time of birth, not conception, and the 1960s society almost required a pregnant female to get married, whereas, in today's society, marriage is typically viewed as unnecessary. Thus, although a problem definitely exists, a large part of the "increase" in illegitimacy may be artificial.

> Experts who testified before the U.S. House said there is a "values crisis" in America, noting it is now socially acceptable to have children out of wedlock, not only for poor black families but for society's cultural heros.
>
> Marian Edelman, head of the Children's Defense Fund, told the subcommittee it is time to change that moral tone.
>
> "If we cannot have our leaders acting more morally, what do we have," she asked, noting the number of pop stars and actresses who have had children without marrying.[3] (p.7)

(2) Illegitimacy Rates by Ethnic Group: U.S. and Indiana

In 1960, 15 percent of total births to teenagers 15 to 19 years of age were children of unwed mothers; by 1983, the incidence had increased to 54 percent.[4] However, between 1970 and 1982, although the teenage pregnancy rate has increased, the actual birth rate has decreased. This decrease is due to an increase in the abortion rate. Moreover, while the illegitimacy rates for Black teenagers has decreased slightly, those for White teenagers have increased (see Figures 4-A1 and 4-A2). As of June 1985, according to the Census Bureau, 58 percent of all Black mothers were unwed, compared to 12 percent of White mothers.[6]

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[4] AP Release, "Teen Pregnancy: Report Says Growing Problem Breeds Poverty, Dependence on Government." Journal & Courier, Mon. Feb. 10, 1986, p.1.

[5] Ulysses J. Rivers, "CLOSE-UP: BLACK WOMEN, Their Struggle to Find a Lasting Love." USA Today, Thursday, May 29, 1986, p. 5D.

[6] Paul Clancy, "Half of New Mothers Are Back at Work." USA Today, Thursday, June 26, 1986.

FIGURE 4-A1

An Epidemic of Pregnancy: Teen-age Pregnancy Rate and Outcomes: 1970-1982

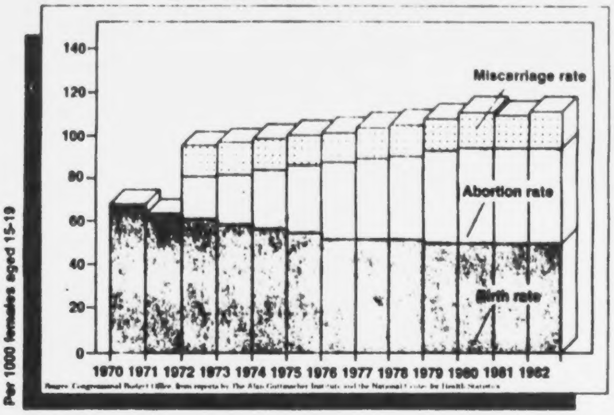
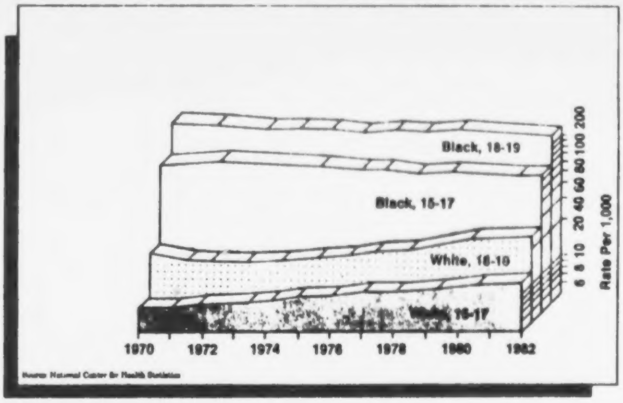


FIGURE 4-A2

... And Illegitimacy: Birth Rates for Unmarried Women, 15-17 and 18-19: 1970-1982



Source: "Here They Come, Ready or Not," Education Week (Special Report), May 14, 1986, Vol. V (No.34), pp.13-37.

According to the 1980 census, the illegitimate fertility rate for U.S. never-married women 15 through 44 years of age was 168 children for each 1000 women. However, the rate was more than four times higher for women 25 through 44 (447) than for women 15 through 24 (96: See Table 4-A1). For never-married women in Indiana aged 15 through 44, the rate was slightly lower than the National rate. However, when examined by ethnic groups, the fertility rates in Indiana were higher for never-married White women and much higher for never-married Black women. Women in all the other Minority groups in Indiana had much lower rates than the National rates (see Table 4-A1.)

TABLE 4-A1

ILLEGITIMATE BIRTH RATES IN THE UNITED STATES AND INDIANA: 1980

(CHILDREN AS PERCENT OF WOMEN)
(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

					MINORITY									
Women	TOTAL		WHITE		Total[1/]		Black		Hispanic[2/]		Nat. Amer.		Asian & Pac. Isl.	
Never Married:	U.S.	IN.	U.S.	IN.	U.S.	IN.	U.S.	IN.	U.S.	IN.	U.S.	IN.	U.S.	IN.
15-24 Years Old														
Number of women	14,940.1	351.1	11,782.5	307.8	3,157.6	43.3	2,384.0	38.6	414.7	2.5	115.9	.5	243.1	1.7
Number of children	1,432.1	30.6	441.7	13.8	990.4	16.8	884.4	16.4	73.6	.3	23.6	.1	8.8	.0
Birth Rate	.096	.087	.037	.045	.314	.388	.371	.424	.178	.124	.204	.140	.036	.015
25-44 Years Old														
Number of women	3,856.8	64.8	2,756.9	51.6	1,099.9	13.2	867.3	12.1	110.7	.5	26.8	.2	95.1	.5
Number of children	1,724.5	25.9	378.3	7.7	1,346.2	18.3	1,201.0	17.9	111.7	.2	23.6	.1	9.9	.0
Birth Rate	.447	.400	.137	.149	1.224	1.379	1.385	1.478	1.009	.521	.879	.573	.104	.013

[1/] *Estimated as all non-Whites.*

[2/] *Estimated as Total - Whites - Blacks - Native American - Asian/Pac.Islanders - Non-Spanish - "Not Elsewhere Classified", i.e., Spanish people who do not identify themselves as any of the aforementioned races.*

Source: *1980 U.S. Census reports.*

The numbers and rates of illegitimate births in Indiana are very significant and continue to grow. Total illegitimate births in Indiana have grown from 8,713 in 1970 to nearly 15,000 in 1984; 9,329 were White and 5,669 were Non-White. More than 13 percent of all White births were illegitimate in 1984, and more than 63 percent of all Black births were illegitimate, both increases from 1970 (see Table 4-A2).

TABLE 4-A2

ILLEGITIMATE BIRTHS BY RACE* FOR INDIANA: 1970-1984

(ALL WOMEN 15 THRU 44 YEARS OF AGE)

			Non-White		Rate (% of Live Births)		
	TOTAL	White	Number	% of Total	Total	White	Non-White
1970	8,713	5,301	3,412	39.16%	8.77%	5.88%	36.83%
1971	9,160	5,297	3,863	42.17	9.59	6.15	40.97
1972	9,295	5,113	4,182	44.99	10.67	6.55	45.86
1973	9,409	5,226	4,183	44.46	11.22	6.97	47.01
1974	9,458	5,073	4,385	46.36	11.36	6.84	48.43
1975	10,404	5,645	4,759	45.74	12.63	7.71	51.81
1976	10,614	5,933	4,681	44.10	13.16	8.26	52.92
1977	11,893	6,744	5,149	43.29	13.97	8.93	53.42
1978	11,799	6,773	5,026	42.60	14.16	9.15	53.81
1979	12,922	7,474	5,448	42.16	14.84	9.67	55.46
1980	13,811	8,240	5,571	40.34	15.62	10.49	56.26
1981	14,069	8,520	5,549	39.44	16.62	11.34	58.31
1982	14,407	8,836	5,571	38.67	17.17	11.85	59.71
1983	14,758	9,054	5,704	38.65	18.27	12.63	62.73
1984	14,998	9,329	5,669	37.80	18.77	13.15	63.33
Raw Change:							
1970-1974	745	-228	973	7.20%	2.59%	.96%	11.60%
1974-1979	3,464	2,401	1,063	-4.20	3.48	2.83	7.03
1979-1984	2,076	1,855	221	-4.36	3.93	3.48	7.87
%Change:							
1970-1974	8.55%	-4.30%	28.52%	18.39%	29.53%	16.33%	31.50%
1974-1979	36.63	47.33	24.24	-9.06	30.63	41.37	14.52
1979-1984	16.07	24.82	4.06	-10.34	26.48	35.99	14.19

Source: Indiana Births 1979-1981. Indiana State Board of Health, 1984. Augmented by 1983 & 1984 data from Indiana State Board of Health, October 1985.

** Race is self-reported by parent(s) on birth certificate. Non-White includes Blacks, Native Americans, Asians and Pacific Islanders, and other Non-Whites, except Hispanics. Spanish-origin is not identified, but (according to the U.S. Census) half of Indiana Spanish-origin persons identify themselves as White. Thus, typically low birth-rate "White" includes some (high birth-rate) Minorities, while "Non-White" includes low birth-rate Oriental Americans. Thus, in this Table the numbers of White births are over-stated, and Minorities are understated, because Hispanics are treated as Minority group members throughout this report.*

The total illegitimate birth rate in Indiana more than doubled between 1970 and 1984 (from 9% to 19% of all births). The total numbers of illegitimate births increased steadily from about 8,700 in 1970 to nearly 15,000 in 1984. In 1984, although the State's total female population was approximately 89 percent White and 11 percent Non-White, illegitimate births were 62 percent White and 38 percent Non-White.

However, the illegitimate-birth rate for Whites increased more than 100 percent between 1970 and 1984 (from 6% to 13%) whereas the Non-White illegitimate-birth rate increased about 75 percent during that same period (from 37% to 63%). Consequently, although the illegitimate-birth rate for Blacks is now nearly five times greater than for Whites, the gap has been narrowing.

In the three year period 1979-81 there were 260,169 births in Indiana, 40,802 of which were illegitimate (15.7%). In 1982-84 there were 244,550 births; 44,163 (18.1%) were illegitimate. During both periods the illegitimacy rates of Non-Whites were almost five times that of Whites, although the number of illegitimate Non-White births was less than the number of illegitimate White births.

TABLE 4-A3

ILLEGITIMATE BIRTHS BY RACE FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES FOR THREE-YEAR PERIOD, 1979-1981

	Number			Percent	Illegitimacy Rate (Percent of Live Births)		
Geographic Area	Total	White	Non-White	Non-White of Total	Total	White	Non-White
Indiana	40,802	24,234	16,568	40.61%	15.68%	10.49%	56.66%
Marion County	10,157	3,991	6,166	60.71	25.94	13.81	60.13
Lake	7,433	2,216	5,217	70.19	26.10	11.44	57.24
Allen	2,726	1,415	1,311	48.09	17.90	10.89	58.89
St. Joseph	2,061	1,067	994	48.23	18.54	11.30	59.27
Vanderburg	1,403	832	571	40.70	18.01	12.10	62.54
Madison	1,108	720	388	35.02	18.64	13.58	60.44
LaPorte	831	486	345	41.52	16.29	10.82	56.56
Delaware	871	605	266	30.54	17.24	13.21	56.60
Vigo	699	551	148	21.17	14.53	12.36	41.93
Elkhart	981	719	262	26.71	13.98	10.91	61.65
Grant	712	533	179	25.14	20.08	16.55	55.25
Howard	653	506	147	22.51	15.75	13.07	53.85
Clark	522	398	124	23.75	13.04	10.68	45.09
Monroe	331	301	30	9.06	9.35	8.92	18.29
Wayne	619	493	126	20.36	18.04	15.33	58.33
Tippecanoe	415	401	14	3.37	8.25	8.32	6.64
Floyd	380	303	77	20.26	13.81	11.54	61.60
Porter	457	451	6	1.31	7.83	7.79	12.00
Miami	230	213	17	7.39	10.62	10.43	13.82
Bartholomew	356	342	14	3.93	13.05	12.80	25.00
Johnson	273	266	7	2.56	7.86	7.74	18.92
Hamilton	237	234	3	1.27	6.66	6.67	6.38
Totals							
Selected Co.'s	33,455	17,043	16,412	49.06%	19.24%	11.73%	57.14
NonSel. Co.'s	7,347	7,191	156	2.12	8.51	8.40	23.82

Source: *Indiana Births 1979-1981*. *Indiana State Board of Health, 1984.*

Most illegitimate births occurred in 22 counties, especially for Non-Whites (see Table 4-A3 and 4-A4). The illegitimacy rates were also much higher in these 22 counties, especially for Non-Whites. The number and rate of illegitimacy increased from the period 1979-81 to the period 1982-84, for both Whites and Non-Whites (primarily Blacks), indicating the problem is getting worse over time.

For the two counties with almost two-thirds of Indiana Minorities (Marion and Lake Counties: 20-25% of total population in each being Minority), more than half (59-68%) of each county's illegitimate births were to Non-Whites.

TABLE 4-A4

ILLEGITIMATE BIRTHS BY RACE FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES FOR THREE-YEAR PERIOD, 1982-1984

	Number of Illegimate Births			Percent Non-White	Illegitimacy Rate (Percent of Live Births)		
Geographic Area	Total	White	Non-White	Of Total	Total	White	Non-White
Indiana	44,163	27,219	16,944	38.37%	18.06%	12.53%	61.90%
Marion County	11,214	4,594	6,620	59.03	28.16	15.57	64.15
Lake	7,522	2,443	5,079	67.52	30.68	14.66	64.66
Allen	2,803	1,495	1,308	46.66	19.93	12.39	65.70
St. Joseph	2,271	1,175	1,096	48.26	21.56	13.25	65.63
Vanderburg	1,466	905	561	38.27	20.09	13.99	67.92
Madison	1,103	765	338	30.64	21.61	16.57	69.26
LaPorte	857	524	333	38.86	18.44	12.70	63.92
Delaware	931	644	287	30.83	20.14	15.45	63.08
Vigo	737	604	133	18.05	16.00	14.26	35.95
Elkhart	1,088	784	304	27.94	15.59	12.06	63.47
Grant	754	539	215	28.51	24.59	19.53	70.26
Howard	719	593	126	17.52	19.12	16.78	55.26
Clark	593	482	111	18.72	15.97	13.84	47.84
Monroe	384	356	28	7.29	10.70	10.49	14.29
Wayne	616	502	114	18.51	20.53	17.85	60.32
Tippecanoe	535	522	13	2.43	10.07	10.25	5.94
Floyd	453	375	78	17.22	17.51	15.23	62.40
Porter	521	518	3	.58	9.62	9.66	6.00
Miami	215	205	10	4.65	11.03	11.02	11.24
Bartholomew	413	396	17	4.12	16.18	16.03	20.73
Johnson	372	365	7	1.88	11.12	11.04	18.42
Hamilton	245	242	3	1.22	6.95	6.95	7.32
Totals							
Selected Co.'s	35,812	19,028	16,784	46.87%	21.84%	13.86%	62.69%
NonSel. Co.'s	8,351	8,191	160	1.92	10.37	10.24	30.08

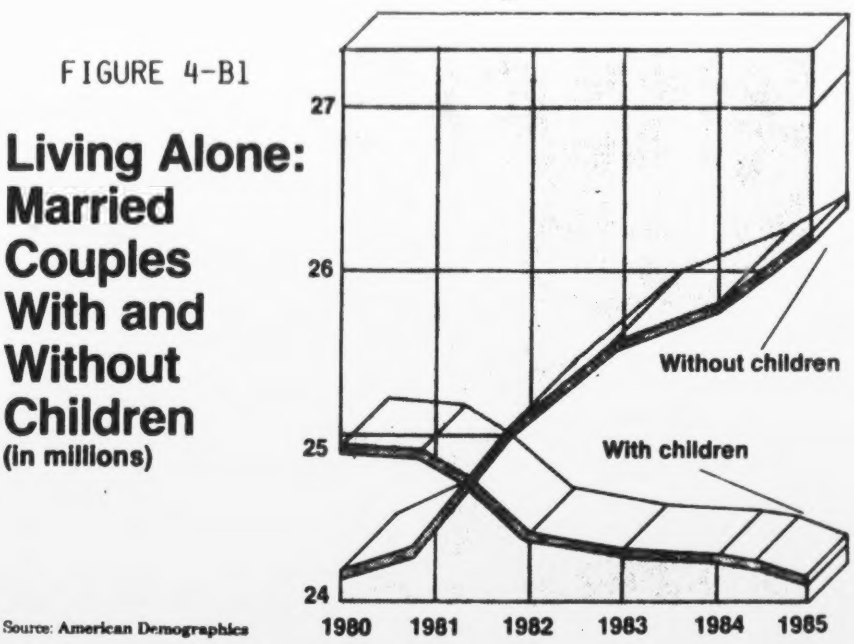
Source: Indiana State Board of Health, October 1985.

B. Household and Family Characteristics

The number of U.S. households increased 7.0 percent between 1980 and 1984 (to approximately 86.1 million), compared with a 4.2 percent increase in total population (to approximately 236.3 million). In Indiana, however, the number of households increased 3.3 percent to two million, while the population grew very slightly (0.1%) to just over five million.

The increase in households, however, is due to a substantial increase in the number of married couples without children (see Figure 4-B1), while the number of married couples with children have been decreasing.

FIGURE 4-B1



Source: "Here They Come, Ready or Not," Education Week (Special Report), May 14, 1986, Vol.V (No.34), pp.13-37.

A major problem for the Black population is the scarcity of adult men. According to 1984 census estimates, there were 1.5 million (20%) fewer Black adult men than Black adult women.[1] Several factors have contributed to this disparity:

- **Black men are three times as likely as black women to marry whites.**
- **Black men are three times as likely to commit suicide as black women.**
- **Blacks made up 23 percent of the USA fatalities in Vietnam, though black males were only about 5 percent of the USA population.**
- **Black men age 24 to 44 have a 1-in-21 chance of being homicide victims (the chance for white men is 1 in 131).**
- **Nearly 50 percent of working-age black men lack jobs, according to the Center for the Study for Social Policy, Washington, D.C.[1] (p.5D)**

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[1] *Ulysses J. Rivers, "CLOSE-UP: BLACK WOMEN, Their Struggle to Find a Lasting Love."* USA Today, *Thursday, May 29, 1986, p.5D.*

This problem is especially critical for Black professionals.[2] With the Black adult men who are eligible, there is an additional problem of attitudes and expectations that may be too high. According to a Wall Street Journal limited survey,

> Some women said they are beginning to consider, or have already tried, such alternatives as interracial relationships, single parenting, short-term inconsequential liaisons and celibacy. Others have turned to sororities, college alumnae clubs and other female support groups for consolation. About two-thirds of the women surveyed said they compensate by concentrating on their careers and discussing the problem with friends.[2] (p.1)
>
> [T]he women's difficulty in finding mates and maintaining relationships threatens the future of the black family. Many of these women, the core of the so-called upwardly mobile class of blacks, will remain childless. So, in the next generation, the largest proportion of black children will be born into less-educated and less-affluent families.[2] (p.1, underline added)

One of the fastest growing segments of the U.S. household and family structure is the presence of unwed teenage mothers and their often multiple number of children, which forms a subfamily within the larger family unit. This increase is especially critical due to the decline of married-couple households with children. While such subfamilies constitute a marked financial strain on the larger family and its income earners, other important considerations also exist. For example,

> teen-age mothers tend to give birth to children who are premature, due mostly to a lack of physical examinations and to their very poor diet while pregnant. Prematurity leads to low birth weight, which increases these infants' chances of major health problems due to the lack of development of the child's immune system. Low birth weight is a good predictor of major learning difficulties when the child gets to school. This means that about 700,000 babies of the annual cohort of around 3.3 million births are almost assured of being either educationally retarded or "difficult to teach." This group is entering the educational continuum in rapidly increasing numbers.[3] (p.5)

Robert Zajonc, a University of Michigan researcher, has studied how family demographics influence academic performance and has found a negative statistical association between family size and test scores.[4] The smaller a student's family, the higher his or her SAT scores tend to be. This finding is especially noteworthy for students of Black and Hispanic families which tend to be larger than those of White students. Such students tend to achieve much lower SAT scores than do White students.

There is extensive variation, however, among ethnic groups in household structure and composition (see Table 4-B1). For example, the 1980 U.S. census found that almost half of the Black households were headed by a female, compared with one-fourth the White households and one-fifth the Asian-American households. In Indiana, proportions were similar, but the proportion of all Indiana households which were headed by a female was slightly more than two percent less than the proportion of U.S. households.

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[2] Valita Sellers, "As Black Women Rise in Professional Ranks, Marriage Gets Chancy." The Wall Street Journal, Friday, May 16, 1986, pp.1,13.

[3] Harold L. Hodgkinson, All One System: Demographics of Education, Kindergarten through Graduate School. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc., 1985.

[4] College Press Service Release, "Study: Family Size Helps Determine Student's SATs." The Purdue Exponent, Friday, Feb. 21, 1986, p.1.

TABLE 4-B1

FAMILY/HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS IN THE UNITED STATES AND NORTH CENTRAL U.S., AND INDIANA BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980

							Minority														
	Total			White			Total[1/]			Black			Hispanic[2/]			Native American			Asian & Pac.Isl.		
Characteristic:	U.S.	N.C.	IN	U.S.	N.C.	IN	U.S.	N.C.	IN	U.S.	N.C.	IN	U.S.	N.C.	IN	U.S.	N.C.	IN	U.S.	N.C.	IN
# Households (Th)	80,467.4	20,877.4	1,928.4	68,991.3	18,881.1	1,778.2	11,476.1	2,066.3	150.2	8,413.2	1,724.2	131.6	1,482.6	146.4	8.3	442.9	76.0	3.5	1,062.9	119.7	6.3
# Female Heads (Th)	22,302.4	5,555.6	489.0	17,783.2	4,682.2	428.3	4,519.2	873.4	60.7	3,728.7	789.8	56.6	406.9	33.4	1.9	137.6	25.8	1.0	224.4	24.4	1.2
Percent	27.7%	26.6%	25.4%	25.8%	24.9%	24.1%	39.4%	42.3%	40.4%	44.3%	45.8%	43.0%	27.4%	22.6%	22.3	31.1%	33.9%	29.0%	21.1%	20.4%	18.5%
# Subfamilies* (Th)	1,386.9	290.73	31.580	869.3	198.07	23.992	517.6	92.67	7.588	401.6	82.16	7.056	57.2	5.62	.297	18.5	2.87	.108	38.9	3.09	.127
# Female Headed (Th)	788.0	175.05	20.081	414.4	102.69	13.742	373.7	72.36	6.339	327.2	68.00	6.073	27.8	2.13	.180	10.5	1.79	.051	7.6	.44	.035
Percent	56.8%	60.2%	63.6%	47.7%	51.8%	57.3%	72.2%	78.1%	83.5%	81.5%	82.8%	86.1%	48.6%	37.9%	60.6%	56.7%	62.2%	47.2%	19.5%	14.2%	27.6%
# Persons/Household	2.74	2.75	2.77	2.68	2.71	2.74	3.17	3.10	3.13	3.05	3.01	3.06	3.45	3.45	3.42	3.30	3.35	2.99	3.22	3.17	3.05
% Households w. > 4 Persons	13.4%	--	13.4%	11.9%	--	12.7%	22.2%	--	20.8%	20.8%	--	20.4%	30.8%	--	29.1%	23.7%	--	16.3%	22.5%	--	20.5%
# Persons/Family	3.27	3.28	3.26	3.19	3.23	3.22	3.74	3.74	3.74	3.69	3.66	3.67	3.87	3.90	3.87	3.83	3.88	3.54	3.75	3.77	3.67
# Persons < 18 yrs. (Th)	63,792.3	16,933.0	1,619.0	50,399.6	14,519.0	1,441.2	13,392.7	2,414.0	177.8	9,406.9	1,936.6	153.2	2,171.4	222.0	12.2	585.0	110.1	3.0	1,125.0	145.3	8.0
% Living w.2 Parents	76.7%	79.6%	79.8%	82.9%	84.8%	83.5%	53.4%	48.3%	49.8%	45.4%	41.9%	45.3%	68.3%	73.8%	73.4%	62.9%	57.5%	72.1%	84.7%	88.1%	87.6%
Fem. H'holder (No Husband):																					
Number (Th)	8,205.3	NA	175.11	5,488.6	NA	137.26	2,716.6	NA	37.85	2,272.1	NA	35.74	279.0	NA	1.14	77.4	NA	.51	88.2	NA	.45
# Unemployed (Th)	395.1	--	12.77	209.2	--	8.23	185.9	--	4.54	161.6	--	4.31	15.8	--	.14	5.3	--	.06	3.1	--	.02
Percent	4.8%	--	7.3%	3.8%	--	6.0%	6.8	--	12.0%	7.1%	--	12.1%	5.7%	--	12.3%	6.9%	--	12.7%	3.5%	--	4.4%
# Not in Labor Force (Th)	3,274.1	NA	56.40	2,091.5	NA	43.75	1,182.6	NA	12.64	968.1	NA	11.75	150.8	NA	.53	36.0	NA	.23	27.6	NA	.14
Percent	39.9%	--	32.2%	38.1%	--	31.9%	43.5	--	33.4%	42.6%	--	32.9%	54.1%	--	46.2%	46.6%	--	45.4%	31.3%	--	31.4%
% w. 0 Workers	22.5%	NA	16.5%	19.2%	NA	14.8%	29.1%	NA	22.6%	28.5%	NA	22.3%	38.4%	NA	33.2%	25.9%	NA	26.7%	16.9%	NA	17.4%
% w. 1 Worker	48.1	--	53.1	49.3	--	53.7	45.6	--	50.9	46.5	--	51.1	38.9	--	47.6	47.7	--	51.9	43.4	--	41.5
% w. >2 Workers	29.4	--	30.5	31.5	--	31.5	25.3	--	26.5	25.0	--	26.6	22.7	--	19.2	26.4	--	21.4	39.6	--	41.1

[1/] *Estimated as all non-Whites.*

[2/] *Estimated as Total - Whites - Blacks - Native Americans - Asian/Pac. Islanders - Non-Spanish "Not Elsewhere Classified", i.e., Spanish people who do not identify themselves as any of the aforementioned races.*

**A Subfamily is a married couple, w. or w/o children, or one parent with one/more never-married children under 18 yrs. of age, living in a household and related to either householder or householder's spouse. Members of subfamily are also included among members of family. # subfamilies not included in # families.*

SOURCE: 1980 U.S. Census reports.

The structure of Black households, in particular, has changed markedly since 1970, partly as a result of dramatically increased divorce rates and partly due to increases in the numbers of never-married mothers.[5] Between 1970 and 1982, female-headed households increased from 28 percent to 41 percent of all Black households.

The number of persons per household also varies considerably across ethnic groups. Hispanics tend to have the largest families and Whites, the smallest. And the pattern for Indiana parallels the national pattern.

Most Black children in the U.S. do not live in two-parent households. In 1982, only 43 percent lived with two parents,[5] a two percent decrease in two years. This proportion was the same for Indiana's Black children, while 83 percent of White children lived with two parents. Moreover, in 1982 almost half (48%) of all U.S. Black children 18 years of age or younger lived in households below the poverty line, compared to one of six White children.[5]

Finally, in households headed by a female, unemployment rates are much higher for Blacks and Hispanics than for Whites. This is especially problematic because of larger Black and Hispanic households depending upon the mother's income (or welfare). Furthermore, while more than two-thirds of children living in female-headed households received government assistance targeted for the poor in the fourth quarter of 1984, the percentage was even higher (85%) for Black and Hispanic female-headed households.[6]

> The education system is losing young people. The baby boom has gone "bust," and America "will simply not be a nation of youth in our lifetime." One obvious conclusion, says Mr. Hodgkinson, is that colleges and universities will have to attract, retain, and succeed in educating more and more older students, or the institutions may not long survive.
>
> Widespread poverty, teen-age pregnancy, single-parent families, and other symptoms of social decay are virtually guaranteeing a rapid rise in the number of children with serious physical and educational disabilities. Inevitably, most of those children will enter and move through the schools, from kindergarten to high schools and beyond. That means that the battle for "remediation," already a *cause celebre* in higher education, really ought to begin a lot sooner than in college, Mr. Hodgkinson maintains -- and college and university leaders ought to be right in the thick of it by working with the schools on their curricula.
>
> Racial minorities are reproducing much faster than the white population, a fact of life that means that schools and colleges will be made up increasingly of the kinds of student with whom most present-day educators have had relatively little experience.
>
> Aren't such observations already part of the "conventional wisdom"? Haven't academic leaders, researchers, and other observers of education been talking about such trends for years? And aren't most officials struggling to get out in front of them?
>
> Mr. Hodgkinson thinks not -- not adequately, at any rate. And the problems are potentially so grave and so unlike those of the past, he says, that many educational and political leaders have been afraid to acknowledge them, much less confront them.[7] (pp.1,28)

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[5] The College Board, Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black Americans. New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, 1985. (See Attachment I.)

[6] Staff Reporter, "Many U.S. Children Live in Families Receiving Aid." The Wall Street Journal, Friday, Jan. 31, 1986, p. 3.

[7] Robert L. Jacobson, "Consultant's Delight: Making Educators and Politicians Confront the Bad News." The Chronicle of Higher Education, March 19, 1986, pp. 1,28,29. (Speaking of Harold L. Hodgkinson)

The pervalence of female householders vary somewhat across counties in Indiana, with a high (among the selected 22 counties) of 32 percent in Marion County and a low of 18 percent in Hamilton County (see Table 4-B2). Similar variability also occurs for Black households, but in all selected counties, females head a higher percentage of Black households than of White households. Also of interest is the observation that, irrespective of ethnic group, the female householder rate is higher for the selected counties than for the unselected ones (but especially for Minorities).

TABLE 4-B2

FEMALE HOUSEHOLDERS IN INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980

							MINORITY					
	Total			White			Total			Black		
	Number H'Hold.	Number Female	Percent	Number H'Hold.	Number Female	Percent	Number H'Hold.	Number Female	Percent	Number H'Hold.	Number Female	Percent
INDIANA	1,928,375	489,048	25.4%	1,778,165	428,325	24.1%	150,210	60,723	40.4%	131,619	56,584	43.0%
Marion Co.	285,094	90,995	31.9%	231,705	67,646	29.2%	53,389	23,349	43.7%	50,939	22,656	44.5%
Lake	175,631	46,509	26.5%	129,956	28,797	22.2%	45,675	17,712	38.8%	39,415	16,366	41.5%
Allen	104,278	27,590	26.5%	94,939	23,790	25.1%	9,339	3,800	40.7%	8,040	3,532	43.9%
St. Joseph	86,241	23,954	27.8%	78,166	20,465	26.2%	8,075	3,489	43.2%	7,260	3,327	45.8%
Vanderburgh	64,110	19,214	30.0%	59,705	17,359	29.1%	4,405	1,856	42.1%	4,076	1,752	43.0%
Madison	50,076	12,969	25.9%	47,108	11,641	24.7%	2,968	1,328	44.7%	2,759	1,262	45.7%
LaPorte	37,343	8,903	23.8%	34,896	8,028	23.0%	2,447	875	35.8%	2,135	819	38.4%
Delaware	44,692	12,211	27.3%	41,867	11,038	26.4%	2,825	1,173	41.5%	2,559	1,133	44.3%
Vigo	40,374	11,771	29.2%	38,246	10,864	28.4%	2,128	907	42.6%	1,784	807	45.2%
Elkhart	48,242	11,852	24.6%	46,101	11,058	24.0%	2,141	794	37.1%	1,653	750	45.4%
Grant	28,000	7,249	25.9%	26,197	6,583	25.1%	1,803	666	36.9%	1,504	598	39.8%
Howard	31,101	7,831	25.2%	29,439	7,314	24.8%	1,662	517	31.1%	1,367	462	33.8%
Clark	31,067	7,995	25.7%	29,462	7,321	24.8%	1,605	674	42.0%	1,450	649	44.8%
Monroe	33,734	10,042	29.8%	32,409	9,633	29.7%	1,325	409	30.9%	747	237	31.7%
Wayne	27,508	7,478	27.2%	26,024	6,919	26.6%	1,484	559	37.7%	1,357	538	39.6%
Tippecanoe	40,759	10,587	26.0%	39,450	10,290	26.1%	1,309	297	22.7%	604	205	33.9%
Floyd	21,463	5,586	26.0%	20,683	5,186	25.1%	780	400	51.3%	730	375	51.4%
Porter	39,238	7,389	18.8%	38,740	7,307	18.9%	498	82	16.5%	NA	NA	--
Miami	13,694	2,944	21.5%	13,264	2,847	21.5%	430	97	22.6%	296	64	21.6%
Bartholomew	22,809	5,010	22.0%	22,268	4,830	21.7%	541	180	33.3%	380	146	38.4%
Johnson	25,341	4,962	19.6%	25,063	4,841	19.3%	278	121	43.5%	136	76	55.9%
Hamilton	27,222	4,788	17.6%	27,009	4,763	17.6%	213	25	11.7%	NA	NA	--
TOTALS												
Select 22 Counties	1,278,017	347,830	27.2%	1,132,697	288,520	25.5%	145,320	59,310	40.8%	NA	NA	--
Unsel. 70 Counties	650,358	141,218	21.7%	645,468	139,805	21.7%	4,890	1,413	28.9%	NA	NA	--

Source: 1980 U.S. Census Reports.

The picture of 18 year olds living with two parents is reverse that of the female householder rate (see Table 4-B3). While 88 percent of 18 year olds in Hamilton County live with two parents, only 69 percent of 18 year olds in Marion County do so. Moreover, while Blacks have the highest female householder rate, they have the lowest two-parent children rate, at approximately half that of Whites. Once more, reverse that of the female householder rate, the selected counties have much lower two-parent children rates than do the unselected counties.

TABLE 4-B3

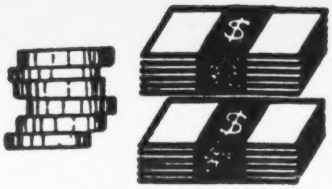
PERSONS UNDER 18 YEARS OF AGE IN INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980

	Total		White		MINORITY			
					Total		Black	
	Number under 18	%Living w. 2 Parents	Number under 18	%Living w. 2 Parents	Number under18	%Living w. 2 Parents	Number under18	%Living w. 2 Parents
INDIANA	1,618,975	79.8%	1,441,175	83.5%	177,800	49.8%	153,180	45.3%
Marion Co.	216,357	69.1	157,537	77.9	58,820	45.5	55,773	43.9
Lake	164,142	72.9	107,301	84.2	56,841	51.6	47,811	47.1
Allen	89,630	78.6	76,828	83.7	12,802	48.0	11,092	43.3
St. Joseph	65,925	78.2	55,912	83.7	10,013	47.5	8,679	41.9
Vanderburgh	42,939	76.0	38,257	80.3	4,682	40.9	4,377	39.3
Madison	41,530	78.2	37,444	81.2	4,086	50.7	3,817	49.5
LaPorte	32,444	79.9	28,735	83.4	3,709	52.8	3,318	48.3
Delaware	34,603	77.9	31,538	80.5	3,065	51.1	2,683	46.3
Vigo	28,238	78.3	26,145	80.4	2,093	52.1	1,681	45.4
Elkhart	42,568	81.2	39,477	83.7	3,091	49.3	2,462	40.4
Grant	23,820	76.9	21,312	80.0	2,508	50.6	2,127	48.1
Howard	27,075	79.6	25,173	81.6	1,902	53.1	1,552	49.7
Clark	27,252	79.5	25,484	81.3	1,768	53.6	1,540	48.4
Monroe	20,770	79.7	19,924	79.9	846	75.0	472	61.7
Wayne	22,315	76.8	20,755	78.7	1,560	51.5	1,382	51.4
Tippecanoe	28,041	85.2	27,121	85.1	920	88.1	330	77.0
Floyd	18,121	79.1	17,230	80.9	891	44.3	817	42.1
Porter	38,123	86.8	37,522	87.0	601	74.3	NA	--
Miami	12,558	83.6	11,922	83.9	636	78.0	322	78.9
Bartholomew	20,387	82.0	19,767	82.8	620	56.5	404	42.6
Johnson	24,556	84.0	24,079	84.9	477	38.6	331	19.6
Hamilton	26,701	88.1	26,456	88.2	245	77.3	NA	--
TOTALS								
Select 22 Counties	1,048,095	76.7	875,919	82.1	172,176	49.3	NA	--
Unsel. 70 Counties	570,880	85.5	565,256	85.7	5,624	66.4	NA	--

Source: 1980 U.S. Census Reports.

C. Income Level

(1) General Background

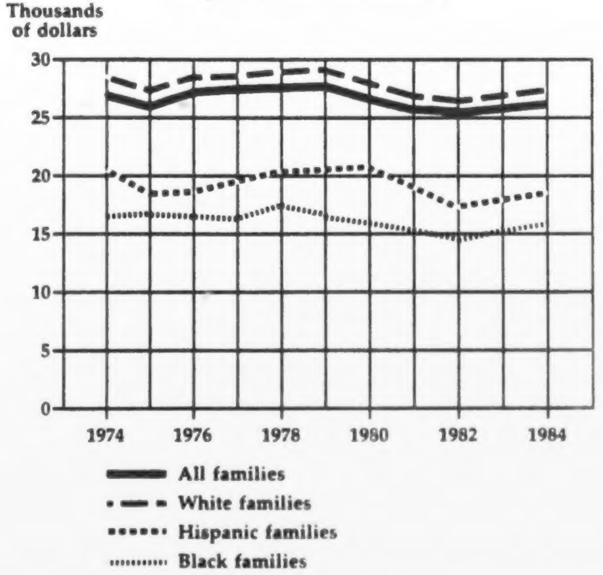


One socio-economic characteristic with the greatest ethnic-group differences is income level. Black families earned 55 percent of the income earned by White families in 1960.[1/] In 1969 this percentage was 63 percent, but by 1982 it had declined back to 55 percent.[2/] Moreover, although Black married-couple families made income gains between 1971, and 1981, these families declined in proportion of all Black families.[1/] The percentage of Black two-income families has also been declining.[3/] Another ethnic group with median income well below that of Whites is the rapidly expanding Hispanic population.[4/]

Real median income has remained relatively level overall since 1974 (see Figure 4-C1). However, major declines occurred during the 1974-75 and 1981-82 recessions, followed by increases during the subsequent recoveries. Thus, real median income has been increasing since 1982. According to the Census Bureau, between 1984 and 1985 real median income continued to increase: 5 percent for Black families to approximately $16,800, compared to 1.7 percent for White families to $29,200.[5/]

FIGURE 4-C1

Median Family Income in 1984 Dollars, by Race (adjusted for inflation)



Source: U.S. Census Bureau, *Money Income of Households, Families and Persons in the U.S.: 1984.* Series P-60, no. 151.

From: "Facts in Brief," Higher Education & National Affairs, July 14, 1986, p.3.

[1/] The College Board, Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black Americans. New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, 1985. (See Attachment I.)

[2/] Mireille G. Gates, "Experts: 80's Recession Kept Unrest in Check." Journal & Courier, Sun., Aug. 18, 1985.

[3/] Harold L. Hodgkinson, All One System: Demographics of Education, Kindergarten Through Graduate School. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership, Inc., 1985.

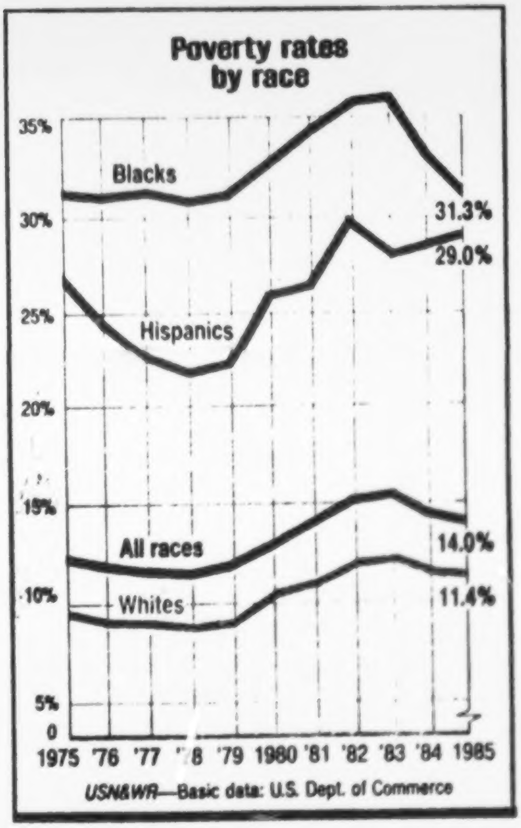
[4/] Jack Kelley, "USA Gains in Poverty Fight." USA Today, Wed., Aug. 28, 1985.

[5/] "1985 Winners and Losers: Progress and Poverty," U.S. News & World Report, Sept. 8, 1986, pp. 8-9.

The percentage of people in poverty also varies considerably across ethnic groups. Since 1970, approximately one in three Blacks has lived with an income below the poverty level.[1,2] However, from 1983 to 1985, the percentage declined slightly from 36 percent to 31 percent[5] (see Figure 4-C2). In contrast, although the percentage of all U.S. people living below poverty level decreased during 1984 and 1985 (including Blacks), the percentage of Hispanics actually increased slightly, bucking the trend.[5,6]

Any family of four earning less than $10,609 in 1984 was considered poor. In the USA in 1984, 11.5 percent of Whites were below poverty level, as were 33.8 percent of Blacks and 28.4 percent of Hispanics. In Indiana the highest median incomes were earned by Whites, and the lowest, by Native Americans, Blacks and Hispanics, which is quite similar to the National scene. However, in 1985 these poverty rates declined to 11.4 percent for Whites and 31.3 percent for Blacks but increased to 29.0 percent for Hispanics.

Figure 4-C2



Source: "1985 Winners and Losers: Progress and Poverty," U.S. News & World Report, Sept. 8, 1986, pp.8-9.

The low median income levels of Blacks and Hispanics results from their concentration in occupations which require low skill levels. "Education is the single most important human capital characteristic in terms of its direct correlation on future earnings."[5] (p.2) Ignoring field(s) of study, Blacks and Hispanics have lower returns to education than Whites. While White men have earned 6.1 percent more for each additional year of school completed, the increase has been only 5.4 percent for Mexican American men, 3.5 percent for Cuban and Puerto Rican men, and 4.9 percent for Black men. However, besides educational level and occupational field and level, income differences are also attributable to such characteristics as language fluency, time in the U.S., work experience, age, military experience, health and government employment.[5]

According to the Census Bureau, in 1985

> [t]he only families to register major increases in median income last year were those with college or graduate-school degrees. Households headed by college graduates increased their income 2.4 percent after inflation to $43,187. The income of families headed by a high-school graduate showed no change at $27,472, while families headed by those who never made it to high school lost $100 in real income, sinking to $15,370.[5] (p.3)

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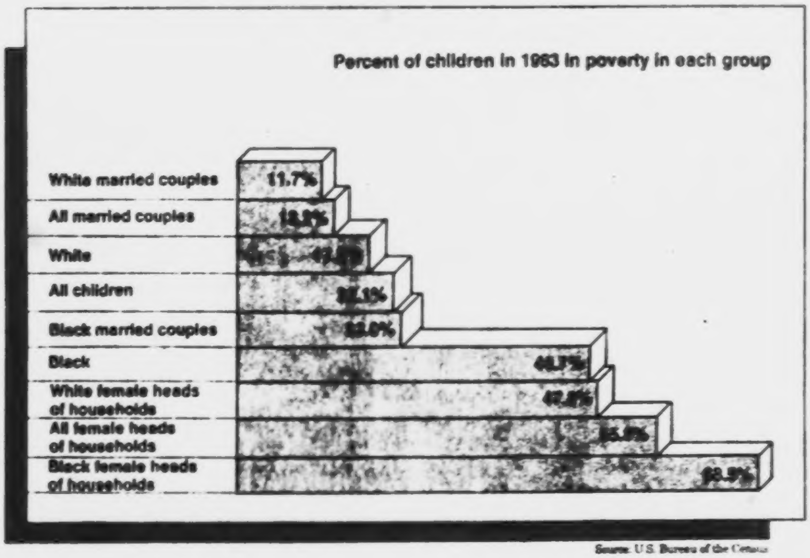
[6] National Council of LaRaza, Hispanics in the Labor Market: 1980-1985. Washington, D.C.: LaRaza, Dec. 1985. (See Attachment II)

Poverty rate is especially critical for children, in particular for Minority children and children of female heads of households[1] (see Figure 4-C3).

> About one in four American children lives in poverty; they are the largest group of impoverished Americans. More than half the children living in households headed by single women are poor. A black child is about three times as likely as a white child to be born into poverty; a Hispanic child is more than twice as likely to be poor.[1] (p.27)

FIGURE 4-C3

The Hierarchy of Poverty



Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census

Source: "Here They Come, Ready or Not," Education Week (Special Report), May 14, 1986, Vol.V (No.34), pp.27.

Because the poverty rate is highest for children of female heads of households, it is also critical for unwed teenage-mother subfamilies. Not only do such subfamilies constitute a marked financial strain on the larger family and its income earners, but they also constitute a potential education strain on the children themselves, putting the children at risk economically as well:

> [T]een-age mothers tend to give birth to children who are premature, due mostly to a lack of physical examinations and to their very poor diet while pregnant. Prematurity leads to low birth weight, which increases these infants' chances of major health problems due to the lack of development of the child's immune system. Low birth weight is a good predictor of major learning difficulties when the child gets to school. This means that about 700,000 babies of the annual cohort of around 3.3 million births are almost assured of being either educationally retarded or "difficult to teach." This group is entering the educational continuum in rapidly increasing numbers.[3] (p.5)

"Education is the single most important human capital characteristic in terms of its direct correlation on future earnings."[5] (p.2)

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[1] "Here They Come, Ready or Not," Education Week (Special Report), May 14, 1986, Vol.V (No.34), pp.13-37.

(2) Income Characteristics: 1980 Census

According to the 1980 census (see Table 4-C1), the median family income and household income were slightly higher for Indiana than for the U.S. in general (but slightly lower than for the North Central Region). This higher income for Indiana than for the U.S. was due to higher incomes for all Minority groups, except for Asian Americans (who had incomes lower in Indiana than in the U.S. and in the Region but still higher than other Minority groups). White incomes were comparable for Indiana and the U.S. However, in Indiana, as well as in the U.S., Minority families and households (except for Asian Americans) had much lower median incomes than those for Whites. This was especially true for Blacks and Native Americans, while Asian Americans had the highest median incomes of all ethnic groups.

Of particular interest is the observation that, for Indiana but not the U.S. in general, median income for married-couple families were comparable across all ethnic groups, except for Native Americans. Therefore, the lower median incomes for Minority families and households is attributable to much lower incomes of families which do not have married couples. Moreover, as pointed out in the previous section, Minority groups tend to include a much smaller percentage of married-couple families than do Whites. Lower median incomes are especially prevalent among female-headed families (without husbands), which comprise a much higher percentage of all Minority families in general.

All Minority groups had a higher percentage (than for Whites) of their families with income below poverty level and (as shown in Table 4-C1) below 125 percent of poverty level, whether in the U.S. in general, in the North Central Region or in Indiana. Except for Asian Americans, all ethnic groups had a smaller percentage of their families living in poverty in Indiana than in the U.S. in general. Poverty rates were especially high in Indiana for Blacks (27%), Native Americans (25%) and Hispanics (21%), while Whites had only an 11 percent rate.

Because of lower income levels, a higher percentage of Minority families tend to receive public assistance income. Again, the highest public assistance rates were for Blacks (12%), Native Americans (9%) and Hispanics (6%), while the rate was only two percent for Whites in Indiana.

Another area of interest is the employment status and income level of female-headed households (without husbands). In 1979, only three percent of all White families were headed by women earning less than 125 percent of the poverty level. However, this was the case for 19 percent of Black families, 11 percent of Native American families and 9 percent of Hispanic families. Almost two-thirds (61%) of the White female householders with less than 125 percent poverty-level income were working in 1979. However, this was the case for only one-third of the relevant Hispanic female householders and one-half for Blacks and Native Americans. Consequently, single-parent families -- especially those of Minorities -- have been an economic and social burden on their communities, states and the U.S. in general, as well as on themselves.

TABLE 4-C1

INCOME CHARACTERISTICS IN 1979 BY ETHNIC GROUP FOR THE UNITED STATES, NORTH CENTRAL U.S., AND INDIANA

							MINORITY											
	TOTAL			WHITE			TOTAL[1]			BLACK			HISPANIC [2]			Asian & Pac. Isl.		
Income Level:	U.S.	NC	IN	U.S.	NC	IN	U.S.	NC	IN	U.S.	NC	IN	U.S.	NC	IN	U.S.	NC	IN
Number of Families (Th)	59.190.1	15.424.5	1.461.64	50,644.9	13.921.1	1.350.32	8.545.3	1.503.4	111.33	6,105.7	1.234.9	96.78	1.232.6	107.7	6.98	818.0	89.7	4.62
Median Income	$19.917	$20.988	$20.535	$20.835	$21.462	$20.805	$14.446	$16.113	$16.748	$12.598	$14.694	$15.964	$12.887	$15.832	$18.583	$22.713	$24.053	$20.847
Percent < $10.000	20.4%	17.9%	17.3%	17.6%	16.1%	16.1%	37.0%	34.5%	31.9%	40.3%	36.1%	33.0%	33.8%	29.3%	23.7%	18.1%	18.2%	21.2%
Number of Households (Th)	80.467.1	20.877.4	1.928.37	68.991.3	18.811.1	1.778.16	11.476.1	2.066.3	150.21	8.413.2	1.724.2	131.62	1.482.6	146.4	8.31	1.062.9	119.7	6.31
Median Income	$16.841	$17.753	$17.582	$17.680	$18.260	$17.860	$12.434	$16.245	$14.632	$10.943	$12.362	$13.589	$11.584	$14.955	$18.062	$19.966	$20.339	$17.105
Percent < $10.000	29.1%	27.2%	26.5%	26.8%	25.7%	25.6%	42.9%	40.6%	37.2%	46.5%	42.3%	39.1%	36.4%	28.9%	10.5%	24.4%	25.6%	31.1%
Household per Capita Income	$7.412	$7.533	$7.269	$7.929	$7.825	$7.451	$4.761	$4.875	$5.362	$4.610	$5.178	$5.330	$4.641	$4.700	$5.701	$7.130	$8.095	$7.070
Number Married-Cpl. Fam. (Th)	48.990.3	13.012.6	1.246.36	43.641.5	12.132.3	1.178.94	5.348.8	880.3	67.42	3.486.6	671.6	55.58	926.1	80.8	5.84	690.8	77.6	3.99
Median Income	$21.635	$22.455	$21.942	$22.042	$22.560	$21.949	$18.302	$21.008	$21.820	$17.499	$21.180	$22.001	$17.189	$16.947	$20.366	$24.469	$25.720	$22.266
# Female H'Hold w/o Husb. (Th)	8.205.3	1.936.9	175.11	5.408.6	1.397.8	137.26	2.716.6	539.1	37.85	2.272.1	493.9	35.74	185.1	19.9	1.15	88.2	8.0	.45
Median Income	$9.960	$10.539	$10.417	$11.384	$11.597	$10.979	$7.058	$7.796	$8.379	$7.271	$7.622	$8.100	$6.937	($7.115)	($7,025)	$12.126	$11.963	$10.727
Median Income by H'Hold Age																		
15-24 yrs.	$12.699	$14,000	$13.832	$13.883	$14.922	$14.327	($8.089)	($7.125)	($7.949)	$6.631	$5.824	$6.800	($10.003)	($11.361)	($12.858)	$10.973	$9.701	$7.434
25-34 yrs.	$19.041	$20.209	$19.737	$20.050	$20.733	$20.039	($13.657)	($14.131)	($15.851)	$12.108	$12.787	$14.930	($14.215)	($16.833)	($19.342)	$20.081	$19.953	$17.325
35-44 yrs.	$23.162	$24.563	$24.161	$24.275	$25.106	$24.455	($17.013)	($19.229)	($20.484)	$15.585	$18.085	$19.639	($16.611)	($19.761)	($23.115)	$25.700	$28.895	$25.018
45-54 yrs.	$25.864	$27.222	$26.350	$26.961	$27.808	$26.653	($18.455)	($21.127)	($22.523)	$16.886	$20.216	$21.632	($18.800)	($23.252)	($26.419)	$27.814	$30.559	$27.567
55-64 yrs.	$21.950	$23.050	$22.421	$22.711	$23.428	$22.667	($15.884)	($18.730)	($19.150)	$14.339	$18.122	$18.450	($16.548)	($21.299)	($23.577)	$26.691	$26.195	$22.679
65+ yrs.	$12.295	$12.421	$12.373	$12.696	$12.563	$12.493	($9.149)	($10.237)	($9.974)	$8.449	$10.100	$9.866	($9.449)	($10.904)	($10.455)	$14.928	$12.558	$12.169
Income Below 125% Poverty Level:																		
Number of Families (Th)	7,918.98	1.712.41	153.28	5.213.02	1.273.52	124.61	2,705.96	438.89	28.68	2.062.73	374.98	25.70	409.17	29.45	1.45	117.58	13.45	.80
Percent ALL Families	13.4%	11.1%	10.5%	10.3%	9.1%	9.2%	31.7%	29.2%	25.8%	33.8%	30.4%	26.6%	33.2%	27.3%	20.7%	14.4%	15.0%	17.4%
Persons per Family	3.59	3.51	3.52	3.37	3.38	3.44	4.01	3.89	3.87	3.94	3.87	3.86	4.30	4.02	3.98	4.08	4.09	3.96
Number Families with Public Assistance Income (Th)	2,273.97	522.83	35.45	1,142.58	293.29	22.71	1,131.39	229.55	12.75	914.99	205.81	11.95	148.22	10.97	.46	27.61	3.16	.10
Percent ALL Families.	3.8%	3.4%	2.4%	2.3%	2.1%	1.7%	13.2%	15.3%	11.4%	15.0%	16.7%	12.3%	12.0%	10.2%	6.5%	3.4%	3.5%	2.1%
Number Female Householders w/out Husbands (Th)	3,101.39	686.70	59.81	1.598.03	397.36	40.64	1,503.36	289.34	19.17	1.258.52	264.57	18.05	169.13	11.72	.64	28.04	2.61	.17
Percent ALL Families	5.2%	4.5%	4.1%	3.2%	2.9%	3.0%	17.6%	19.2%	17.2%	20.6%	21.4%	18.7%	13.7%	10.9%	9.2%	3.4%	2.9%	3.7%
Number working in 1979	1.411.47	314.12	34.35	795.19	210.05	24.86	616.28	104.07	9.50	529.13	94.38	9.00	52.56	3.71	.22	13.10	1.12	.11
% Female Householders	45.5%	45.7%	57.4%	49.8%	52.9%	61.2%	41.0%	36.0%	49.5	42.0%	35.7%	49.9%	31.1%	31.7%	33.6%	46.7%	42.9%	61.3%

[1] Estimated as all Non-Whites; numbers in parenthesis are estimated as total of all Non-White groups using "Spanish Origin" in place of "Hispanic".

[2] Estimated as Total - Whites - Blacks - Native Americans - Asian/Pac. Islanders - Non-Spanish "Not Elsewhere Classified" i.e., Spanish people who do not identify themselves as any of the aforementioned races; numbers in parenthesis are "Spanish Origin" (of any race designated), usually two to three times larger than "Hispanic".

SOURCE: 1980 U.S. Census Reports.

(3) Socioeconomic Characteristics: 1985 SAT Questionnaire

According to self-reports of students completing the "Student Descriptive Questionnaire" in 1985, the income of Whites was significantly higher than that of Minorities for the U.S. ($34,700 vs. $24,410: see Table 4-C2). The difference was significant for Indiana also ($30,800 vs. $23,473), but not as great as for the U.S. or Midwest. Median parental income was *especially low for Blacks* (U.S., Midwest and Indiana); 30 to 34 percent of Blacks had income less than $12,000, compared to less than 10 percent of Whites.

Indiana median parental income was *lower* than that for the U.S. (and, in particular, the Midwest), *especially for Whites* ($30,800 for Indiana vs. $36,300 for the Midwest). However, income of Blacks and Hispanics was higher in the Midwest and Indiana than in the U.S. as a whole.

Financial contribution to education of Whites was expected to be significantly higher than that of Minorities for U.S., Midwest and Indiana students. The difference for Indiana, was not as great as for the U.S. Contributions would be *especially low for Black* students in all three geographic areas (i.e., almost nonexistent). Contributions would also be *low for Hispanic* students. Expected contributions in Indiana of *Whites were lower* than those in U.S. or Midwest. For *Blacks and Hispanics*, however, they were lower than in the Midwest but *higher* than in the U.S. as a whole.

The ratio of estimated contributions to income were *significantly lower for Blacks and Hispanics* than for Whites -- especially for Blacks. The Midwest ratio was higher than the U.S. ratio. The Indiana White ratio was *lower than both U.S. & Midwest* ratios. Indiana Black & Hispanic ratios were *higher than U.S.* but *lower than Midwest* ratios.

Plans for requesting part-time work varied between 35 and 55 percent of the students across ethnic groups and geographical areas. Black and Hispanic students tended to desire part-time work to a greater extent than the other ethnic groups. Furthermore, Indiana and Midwest students desired part-time work more than U.S. students in general across ethnic groups, except for Oriental Americans.

TABLE 4-C2

SELF-REPORTED SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS COMPLETING THE "STUDENT DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE" OF THE COLLEGE BOARD'S ADMISSIONS TESTING PROGRAM FOR THE UNITED STATES, THE MIDWEST, AND INDIANA: 1985

				All Minority				
	Geo. Area	All Students	White	Total*	Black	Hispanic	American Indian	Oriental American
Ethnic representation of respondents to College Boards's ATP Student Descriptive Questionnaire	U.S.	100.0%	75.7%	24.3%	8.4%	3.2%	.5%	4.5%
	MW	100.0	85.6	14.4	6.7	1.0	.3	2.3
	IN	100.0	87.2	12.8	5.8	1.3	.4	1.0
Median parental income	U.S.	$32,200	$34,700	$24,410	$17,100	$19,378	$24,700	$26,400
	MW	35,000	36,300	26,077	19,900	26,325	27,500	38,300
	IN	30,000	30,800	23,473	18,200	25,107	24,800	27,600
Percent with parental income ≥ $30,000	U.S.	54.6%	60.4%	36.5%	23.3%	28.8%	40.1%	44.4%
	MW	61.5	64.4	44.3	29.7	39.7	43.1	63.5
	IN	50.1	52.3	32.2	24.5	34.0	35.8	46.8
Percent with parental income < $12,000	U.S.	11.5%	7.2%	24.9%	33.9%	28.3%	21.4%	20.6%
	MW	7.9	6.0	19.2	29.5	17.0	18.4	11.1
	IN	10.6	9.1	22.8	30.8	15.6	17.5	19.9
Median parental contribution	U.S.	$2,020	$2,590	$244	$0	$166	$1,050	1,020
	MW	2,620	2,790	1,453	380	986	1,330	2,880
	IN	1,590	1,820	590	170	620	960	1,280
Ratio of median parental contribution to income	U.S.	6.3%	7.5%	1.0%	0.0%	0.9%	5.3%	3.9%
	MW	7.5	7.7	5.6	1.9	3.7	4.8	7.5
	IN	5.3	5.9	2.5	0.9	2.5	3.9	4.6
PERCENT PLANNING TO REQUEST Part-time work	U.S.	37.9%	38.0%	37.6%	50.4%	44.0%	42.4%	39.3%
	MW	40.4	40.1	42.2	54.8	51.3	42.1	39.6
	IN	41.4	41.4	41.4	55.4	53.7	46.3	34.6

*Estimated; U.S. - United States, MW - Midwest, IN - Indiana

Sources: College-Bound Seniors, 1985: National, Midwestern, and Indiana Reports, College Board, Admissions Testing Program, 1985.

Among Indiana students taking the SATs between 1981 and 1985 the representation of Minorities increased very slightly (12.1% to 12.8%). However, the increase is attributable to Hispanics and Oriental Americans (see Table 4-C3).

Median parental income of Indiana students taking the SATs increased significantly from 1981 to 1985 ($23,900 vs. $30,000). However, income increase has been greater for Whites ($24,500 vs. $30,800: 25.7% increase) than for Minorities ($18,984 vs. $23,473: 23.6% increase). Nevertheless, increase was present for each ethnic group, with Blacks having the lowest income ($15,200 to $18,200: 19.7% increase). Thus, income levels were greatly divergent across ethnic groups, with Whites being highest and Blacks lowest.

The estimated parental contribution to education of Whites was significantly higher than that of Minorities for all three years. The median contribution for Blacks was especially low: $0 in 1981. Highest non-White contributions have come from Oriental Americans and the "not-reported" ethnic group. Estimated contributions from Whites increased from $870 in 1981 to $1,820 in 1985, but from Minorities, from $227 in 1981 to $590 in 1985. The contribution increase was especially low for Blacks ($0 to $170). Non-White contribution increases were high for the "not-reported" ethnic group ($540 to $1,330), "Other" ($300 to $1,010), American Indian ($430 to $960), and Oriental American ($770 to $1,280) students.

The ratio of estimated educational contributions to income was significantly lower for Minorities than for Whites for all three years. The ratio was especially low for Blacks (0% in 1981 and .9% in 1985). Non-White ratios were high for Oriental American (3.1% and 4.6%) and "not-reported" ethnic group (2.5% and 4.9%) students. However, despite differences, the ratio for each group increased from 1981 to 1985.

Plans for requesting part-time work varied between 35 and 56 percent of Indiana students across ethnic groups and the years 1981 through 1985. Plans were higher for Blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians than for Whites. From 1981 to 1985, there was an increase in plans for Blacks, Hispanics, and American Indians and a slight increase for Whites.

TABLE 4-C3

SELF-REPORTED SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGH-SCHOOL SENIORS COMPLETING THE "STUDENT DESCRIPTIVE QUESTIONNAIRE" OF THE COLLEGE BOARD'S ADMISSIONS TESTING PROGRAM FOR INDIANA: 1981, 1983, 1985

				All Minority				
	Year	All Students	White	Total*	Black	His-panic	American Indian	Oriental American
Ethnic representation of respondents to College Boards's ATP Student Descriptive Questionnaire	'81	100.0%	87.9%	12.1%	5.9%	1.1%	.4%	.7%
	'83	100.0	87.5	12.5	5.9	1.2	.4	.9
	'85	100.0	87.2	12.8	5.8	1.3	.4	1.0
Median parental income	'81	$23,900	$ 24,500	$18,984	$15,200	$20,156	$20,700	$24,800
	'83	27,700	28,400	22,111	17,300	23,888	24,900	27,500
	'85	30,000	30,800	23,473	18,200	25,107	24,800	27,600
Percent with parental income ≥ $30,000	'81	31.2%	32.5%	20.5%	15.8%	17.9%	24.1%	38.1%
	'83	43.7	45.6	28.5	21.7	34.9	31.5	45.0
	'85	50.1	52.3	32.2	24.5	34.0	35.8	46.8
Percent with parental income < $12,000	'81	13.1%	11.1%	29.5%	38.8%	20.6%	22.6%	15.6%
	'83	11.0	9.2	25.4	33.7	15.6	20.7	17.6
	'85	10.6	9.1	22.8	30.8	15.6	17.5	19.9
Median parental contribution	'81	$800	$870	$227	$ 0	$267	$430	$770
	'83	1,240	1,330	521	150	602	830	1,170
	'85	1,590	1,820	590	170	620	960	1,280
Ratio of median parental contribution to income	'81	3.3%	3.6%	1.2%	0.0%	1.3%	2.1%	3.1%
	'83	4.5	4.7	2.4	0.9	2.5	3.3	4.3
	'85	5.3	5.9	2.5	0.9	2.5	3.9	4.6
Percent Planning to Request Part-time work	'81	39.6%	39.3%	41.8%	51.5%	44.2%	43.1%	40.2%
	'83	43.1	42.9	44.5	56.1	49.5	47.0	41.5
	'85	41.4	41.4	41.4	55.4	53.7	46.3	34.6

*Estimated

Sources: College-Bound Seniors, 1981, 1983, 1985: Indiana. The College Board, Admissions Testing Program, 1981, 1983, & 1985.

(4) Socioeconomic Characteristics: Selected Indiana Counties

According to the 1980 census, median income levels varied greatly across the selected 22 counties and ethnic groups (see Table 4-C4), irrespective of whether total family income, married-couple family income or per-capita income are considered. White income were especially high in Hamilton, Porter and Lake Counties and especially low in Miami County. Minority-group incomes tended to be especially high in Porter County but especially low in Monroe and Johnson Counties. However, Black incomes were especially high in Howard and Bartholomew Counties but especially low in Johnson County. Although Minority-group income tended to be lower than White income levels for each county, married-couple family incomes differed much less than the all-family and per-capita incomes.

TABLE 4-C4

MEDIAN INCOME CHARACTERISTICS IN 1979 FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES BY ETHNIC GROUP

	TOTAL			WHITE			MINORITY					
							Total*			Black		
	Families		Per	Families		Per	Families		Per	Families		Per
	All	Mar-Cpl	Capita	All	Mar-Cpl	Capita	All	Mar-Cpl	Capita	All	Mar-Cpl	Capita
Indiana	$20,535	$21,942	$7,142	$20,805	$21,949	$7,316	$16,748	$21,820	$5,332	$15,964	$22,001	$5,233
Marion Co.	20,819	23,294	7,677	21,877	23,634	8,346	16,379	21,209	5,225	15,222	21,151	5,178
Lake	23,961	26,225	7,725	25,389	26,528	8,472	19,868	24,995	5,842	18,284	24,984	5,744
Allen	22,160	24,085	7,766	22,701	24,220	8,079	16,949	22,141	5,058	15,148	21,886	4,904
St. Joseph	20,628	22,063	7,322	21,139	22,243	7,632	15,658	19,520	4,678	13,669	19,288	4,740
Vanderburgh	19,745	21,446	7,480	20,160	21,596	7,721	14,054	18,524	4,632	12,555	18,555	4,523
Madison	20,788	22,237	7,161	20,982	22,195	7,313	17,760	23,232	5,293	17,483	24,528	5,216
LaPorte	21,505	22,986	7,279	21,753	23,017	7,506	18,146	22,387	4,985	15,211	23,169	4,532
Delaware	19,644	21,204	6,716	20,059	21,395	6,866	13,247	17,295	4,648	12,247	17,137	4,536
Vigo	18,746	20,107	6,671	18,871	20,165	6,808	16,128	18,434	4,735	14,462	18,333	4,402
Elkhart	19,872	21,138	7,222	20,131	21,237	7,372	14,757	18,399	4,513	13,703	19,856	4,401
Grant	19,776	21,364	6,703	20,063	21,420	6,851	15,601	20,217	4,953	14,985	19,738	4,668
Howard	22,015	23,981	7,656	22,059	23,872	7,714	21,226	26,547	6,743	22,903	28,871	7,028
Clark	19,391	20,797	6,562	19,617	20,874	6,657	15,020	18,877	4,922	14,855	18,412	4,854
Monroe	18,523	20,187	6,303	18,706	20,322	6,431	12,743	15,669	3,746	15,156	21,346	3,772
Wayne	18,234	19,625	6,512	18,362	19,642	6,610	15,831	19,215	4,893	15,216	19,464	5,051
Tippecanoe	20,554	22,019	6,929	20,709	22,135	6,994	15,125	17,867	5,138	15,682	17,562	5,075
Floyd	19,827	21,337	6,844	20,016	21,386	6,936	14,943	19,266	4,682	15,000	20,339	4,655
Porter	26,334	27,320	8,459	26,354	27,335	8,461	24,870	26,125	8,319	NA	NA	NA
Miami	17,613	18,569	6,222	17,663	18,607	6,284	16,078	17,399	4,860	15,187	16,833	5,661
Bartholomew	21,707	23,068	7,947	21,710	23,007	7,970	21,562	26,994	7,030	21,250	26,786	6,736
Johnson	22,911	24,199	7,520	23,006	24,248	7,589	14,232	17,976	3,499	12,813	20,197	2,386
Hamilton	26,778	28,041	9,426	26,828	28,090	9,461	20,616	21,565	6,031	NA	NA	NA

* *All Non-Whites.*

Source: *1980 U.S. Census Reports. See Appendix 4-C4.*

The 22 selected counties also differ with respect to low-income family characteristics (see Table 4-C5). While 10.5 percent of all Indiana families had income below 125 percent of poverty level, according to the 1980 census, less than 6 percent of Hamilton and Porter County families had such low incomes. However, more than 12 percent of Monroe and Wayne County families had low incomes. The percentages were especially high for Minorities (primarily Blacks), but a great diversity existed across counties for each ethnic group.

A great diversity across counties was also evident with respect to the percentage of families receiving public assistance. Although less than one percent of families in Hamilton, Porter and Johnson Counties received public assistance, more than three percent of families in Lake, Wayne, Marion and Delaware Counties received public assistance. Public assistance was especially prevalent for Minority families -- in Wayne, Vanderburgh and Delaware Counties in particular.

TABLE 4-C5

LOW-INCOME FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS IN 1979 FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES BY ETHNIC GROUP

(Income Below 125% of Poverty Level)

	TOTAL			WHITE			MINORITY					
							Total*			Black		
	% of Families	Public Assist.		% of Families	Public Assist.		% of Families	Public Assist.		% of Families	Public Assist.	
		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent		Number	Percent
Indiana	10.5%	35,452	2.4%	9.2%	22,706	1.7%	25.8%	12,746	11.4%	26.6%	11,946	12.3%
Marion Co.	11.6%	7,408	3.7%	8.3%	3,154	2.0%	25.7%	4,254	11.1%	26.1%	4,152	11.4%
Lake	11.5%	6,282	4.6%	6.9%	1,713	1.7%	24.8%	4,569	12.9%	25.9%	4,181	13.8%
Allen	8.4%	1,837	2.4%	6.5%	1,013	1.5%	26.7%	824	11.4%	28.1%	788	12.7%
St. Joseph	9.1%	1,687	2.6%	7.0%	903	1.6%	29.6%	784	13.2%	30.6%	749	14.1%
Vanderburgh	10.4%	1,344	3.0%	8.8%	886	2.1%	31.4%	458	14.9%	31.2%	436	15.3%
Madison	10.2%	1,159	3.0%	9.2%	854	2.4%	25.3%	305	13.2%	26.6%	303	14.0%
LaPorte	8.3%	573	2.0%	7.1%	368	1.4%	24.0%	205	10.4%	26.7%	197	11.5%
Delaware	12.6%	1,079	3.3%	11.3%	795	2.6%	34.0%	284	14.2%	34.5%	268	14.7%
Vigo	11.0%	620	2.2%	10.2%	551	2.0%	27.9%	69	5.3%	30.4%	69	6.4%
Elkhart	8.4%	595	1.6%	7.5%	425	1.2%	27.6%	170	9.5%	29.6%	150	11.0%
Grant	11.3%	528	2.4%	10.2%	406	2.0%	28.2%	122	8.8%	27.4%	106	9.3%
Howard	9.2%	581	2.4%	8.7%	475	2.1%	17.2%	106	8.3%	15.2%	60	5.7%
Clark	10.9%	551	2.3%	10.1%	433	1.9%	26.0%	118	9.9%	26.1%	113	10.6%
Monroe	12.6%	372	1.8%	12.2%	367	1.8%	26.8%	5	.8%	20.0%	5	1.7%
Wayne	12.5%	823	3.9%	11.8%	653	3.3%	25.8%	170	16.1%	25.6%	159	16.8%
Tippecanoe	9.2%	318	1.2%	8.7%	289	1.1%	27.0%	29	3.8%	20.4%	24	8.8%
Floyd	10.7%	422	2.5%	9.9%	344	2.1%	29.1%	78	12.6%	26.0%	72	12.5%
Porter	5.6%	228	.7%	5.5%	223	.7%	10.6%	5	1.2%	NA	NA	--
Miami	11.8%	128	1.2%	11.7%	123	1.2%	17.2%	5	1.5%	14.3%	--	0 %
Bartholomew	9.5%	332	1.8%	9.2%	324	1.8%	21.3%	8	2.2%	21.1%	8	3.3%
Johnson	7.6%	173	.8%	7.5%	170	.8%	19.4%	3	1.3%	20.2%	--	0 %
Hamilton	4.7%	170	.7%	4.6%	164	.7%	18.6%	6	3.3%	NA %	NA	--
TOTAL												
Sel. 22 Cos.	10.2%	27,210	2.9%	8.2%	14,633	1.7%	25.9%	12,577	11.7%	NA %	NA	--
Unsel 70 Cos.	11.0%	8,242	1.6%	10.9%	8,073	1.6%	22.4%	169	4.8%	NA %	NA	--

* *All Non-Whites.*

Source: *1980 U.S. Census Reports. See Appendix 4-C5.*

As discussed earlier, according to the 1980 census, there were almost 60,000 female heads of Indiana households (with no husband present) whose income was below 125 percent of poverty level, representing just over three percent of all Indiana households. This proportion, however, was much higher for Minorities (13%) than for Whites (2%). Moreover, 6 out of 10 of these White women were working, compared to less than 5 out of 10 of these Minority women.

Low-income female householder characteristics varied greatly across selected Indiana counties. White low-income female householders represented only 1.2 percent of all Hamilton County households but 3.6 percent of Wayne County households. Moreover, three-fourths of such women in Johnson, Hamilton and Tippecanoe Counties were working, compared to less than half of such women in Lake County.

The situation was even more diverse across counties for Minorities. Low-income female householders represented as low as one percent of all households in Monroe County but as high as 18 percent in Floyd County. Furthermore, the percentage that were working was as high as 100 percent in Bartholomew County and as low as 22 percent in Hamilton County.

TABLE 4-C6

INCOME CHARACTERISTICS OF FEMALE HOUSEHOLDERS (No Husband Present) BELOW 125% POVERTY LEVEL IN 1979 FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNITES BY ETHNIC GROUP

							MINORITY					
	TOTAL			WHITE			Total*			Black		
	Number	% All H'Holds	% Working '79	Number	% All H'Holds	% Working '79	Number	% All H'Holds	% Working '79	Number	% All H'Holds	% Working '79
Indiana	59,814	3.1%	57.4%	40,645	2.3%	61.2%	19,169	12.8%	49.5%	18,052	13.7%	49.9%
Marion Co.	11,953	4.2%	59.3%	5,411	2.3%	61.2%	6,542	12.3%	57.7%	6,403	12.6%	57.6%
Lake	9,577	5.5%	39.5%	3,178	2.4%	48.0%	6,399	14.0%	35.2%	5,862	14.9%	35.8%
Allen	3,372	3.2%	63.6%	2,030	2.1%	67.1%	1,342	14.4%	58.3%	1,285	16.0%	58.8%
St. Joseph	3,015	3.5%	58.0%	1,808	2.3%	59.0%	1,207	14.9%	56.4%	1,165	16.0%	56.4%
Vanderburgh	2,128	3.3%	55.0%	1,431	2.4%	58.8%	697	15.8%	47.2%	664	1.6%	46.7%
Madison	1,741	3.5%	51.4%	1,301	2.8%	54.6%	440	14.8%	42.0%	433	15.7%	42.3%
LaPorte	1,067	2.9%	63.6%	745	2.1%	65.8%	322	13.2%	58.7%	312	14.6%	57.4%
Delaware	1,705	3.8%	58.7%	1,311	3.1%	59.2%	394	13.9%	56.9%	378	14.8%	57.4%
Vigo	1,064	2.6%	57.0%	859	2.2%	56.7%	205	9.6%	58.0%	178	10.0%	53.9%
Elkhart	1,060	2.2%	67.3%	751	1.6%	66.6%	309	14.4%	68.9%	299	18.1%	69.9%
Grant	1,045	3.7%	65.6%	826	3.2%	67.9%	219	12.1%	56.6%	201	13.4%	56.7%
Howard	885	2.8%	53.0%	762	2.6%	57.1%	123	7.4%	27.6%	100	7.3%	34.0%
Clark	1,032	3.3%	64.0%	855	2.9%	67.0%	177	11.0%	49.2%	177	12.2%	49.2%
Monroe	750	2.2%	62.4%	732	2.3%	61.7%	18	1.4%	88.9%	16	2.1%	100.0%
Wayne	1,106	4.0%	60.1%	941	3.6%	63.2%	165	11.1%	42.4%	161	11.9%	43.5%
Tippecanoe	798	2.0%	75.4%	745	1.9%	74.6%	53	4.0%	86.8%	29	4.8%	75.9%
Floyd	725	3.4%	59.9%	584	2.8%	60.4%	141	18.1%	57.4%	123	16.8%	56.1%
Porter	729	1.9%	65.4%	713	1.8%	65.5%	16	3.2%	62.5%	NA	-- %	-- %
Miami	416	3.0%	70.4%	390	2.9%	69.0%	26	6.0%	92.3%	18	6.1%	100.0%
Bartholomew	630	2.8%	65.1%	597	2.7%	63.1%	33	6.1%	100.0%	33	8.7%	100.0%
Johnson	544	2.1%	75.6%	509	2.0%	75.6%	35	12.6%	74.3%	23	16.9%	60.9%
Hamilton	335	1.2%	73.4%	326	1.2%	74.8%	9	4.2%	22.2%	NA	-- %	-- %
TOTAL												
Sel. 22 Cos.	45,677	3.6%	56.1%	26,805	2.4%	60.9%	18,872	13.0%	49.3%	NA	-- %	-- %
Unsel 70 Cos.	14,137	2.2%	61.6%	13,840	2.1%	61.6%	297	6.1%	64.3%	NA	-- %	-- %

** All Non-Whites.*

Source: 1980 U.S. Census Reports.

D. Higher Education Financial Aid Needs

(1) General Situation

> [I]n brief, the financial situation faced by blacks, either young people or adults, considering college attendance has become harsher in the 1980's. Not only has family income failed to keep pace with that of Whites and Hispanics, but the substantial increase in single head of family households (with, therefore, a single wage earner at best) makes it most difficult to accumulate even modest savings for college or to consider realistically paying-off monies borrowed to attend college. This disparity in income, combined with the shifting composition of the financial aid package may be the primary deterrent to black college enrollment... [Moreover,] increase in loans to over 50% of the aid package and a reduction of grants from two-thirds to under half of the loan package would undoubtedly prove very discouraging to minority and black young people, particularly as they look to a four-year college education. A debt load of up to $10,000 at the conclusion of a four-year degree program can prove a very strong deterrent to a lower income person whose annual family income is half that amount.
>
> ... [Therefore,] colleges appear to offer a debt burden and only modest assurances of well paid employment after graduation. This would appear to place colleges at a disadvantage in recruiting those young people who are uncertain as to their academic ability and insecure as to their financial future.[1] (pp. 12-14,16; underline added)

This deterrence to a college education is especially important to low-income families in that potential college students are not only family dependents but are more likely than higher socioeconomic students to be breadwinners for the family as well. Consequently, going to college may itself lower the family income in the short-term from its already meager level.

According to a recent report by the American Association of State Colleges and Universities,[2] student financial aid has not kept pace with increases in the total costs of attending public colleges and universities between school years 1981-82 and 1983-84. While total costs increased an average of $300, aid to the neediest students increased only $150, and the number of recipients fell 2.3 percent. Nevertheless, student aid did continue to be directed to the neediest students, with the proportion of recipients meeting the most stringent aid criteria increasing and the percentage of all aid dollars going to such students. However, the overall recipient decline reflects a much larger 12.4 percent decline for Minority students. Minority students thus represented 29 percent of all recipients in 1983-84, compared with 32 percent in 1981-82.

More recently, the National Association of State Scholarship and Grant Programs has found that state spending on grants and scholarships for needy undergraduates was expected to increase nearly 12 percent for academic year 1985-86 from 1984-85.[3] However, 14 states were expecting no increase, while only 22 states expected an increase of 10 percent or more. Moreover, grant aid has kept pace with total costs in only 15 states since 1979-80. As "a reflection of the dramatic and recent decrease in post-secondary-education participation rates of Black high-school graduates throughout the nation"[3] (p.18), less aid was again expected to go to Black students than previously, while more was expected to go to Asian-American students. Black students' share of state scholarship aid was expected to decrease to 15 percent of the total from 24 percent in 1981-82. Thus, in general, there has been a shift in student aid toward middle-class White students.[4] Finally, an increased share of state grant aid was expected to go to part-time students, older students, and students attending proprietary institutions.[3]

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[1] The College Board, Minority Enrollment in Higher Education Institutions: A Chronological View (Final Draft). New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, Sept. 9, 1985.

[2] Jean Evangelauf, "Student Aid Fails to Keep Up with Costs on Public Campuses, New Study Finds." The Chronicle of Higher Education, June 5, 1985, pp. 17,19.

[3] Robin Wilson, "State Funds for Needy Undergraduates to Rise 12 Pct. This Year, Survey Finds." The Chronicle of Higher Education, Feb. 5, 1986, pp. 13,18.

While less needy students have first relied upon *loans*, and then personal resources and work, to pay for college, the neediest students have first relied upon *grants*, followed by loans, personal resources and work.[2] This reliance is especially critical in light of a finding by the Education Department's General Accounting Office that 6.9 percent of Pell Grants awarded in 1982-83 were underpayments to qualified students.[5] This was an *increase* from the 5.7 percent in 1980-81. It is no wonder that the Southern Regional Education Board has concluded that "the high cost of higher education has hurt efforts to boost Black enrollment"[6] (p.18) and has blamed Black students' better job prospects and inability to obtain financial aid for making the college-attendance rate decline.[7]

Finally, as noted earlier in this report, besides having a major impact on college enrollment, financial aid also has a major impact on college retention, especially among Black students,[7,8]

> who are nearly twice as likely to stay in 4-year colleges with aid than without. The importance of financial aid for black students is apparent, considering that in 1981, 48 percent of black college-bound seniors came from families with incomes under $12,000, as compared to only 10 percent of their white counterparts.[8] (p.5)

According to data recently presented in *The College Cost Book 1986-87* (the Division of Policy Analysis and Research of the American Council on Education), between 1985-86 and 1986-87, *tuition and fees* for resident students at *public* four-year institutions increased 5.5 percent (to $1337), compared with an 8.2 percent increase at *private* four-year institutions (to $5793).[9] Two-year public and private institutions increased 4.4 percent (to $663) and 7.9 percent (to $3910), respectively. Total expenses in 1986-87 are expected to be $5604 at public four-year institutions and $10,199 at private ones.

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[4] American Council on Education, "Dim Outlook for Minorities in Higher Ed Continues." *Higher Education & National Affairs*, Vol. 34 (No. 19), Oct. 14, 1985, pp. 1,5. (Newsletter of the ACE)

[5] Robin Wilson, "Nearly 30 Pct of Pell Grants Are Too Big or Too Small, Government Auditors Find." *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, July 3, 1985. pp. 15,18.

[6] Scott Jaschik, "Decline in Enrollment of Blacks Seen Unless States Start New Programs." *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, Jan. 8, 1986.

[7] Exponent wire service, "Study: Black Students' College Attendance Drops." *The Purdue Exponent*, Fri., Jan. 24, 1986, p.1.

[8] The College Board, *Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black Americans*. New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, 1985. (See Attachment I.)

[9] "Average College Costs Expected to Increase in 1986-87", *Higher Education & National Affairs* ("Facts in Brief"), August 25, 1986.

(2) College Student Expenses and Resources: Indiana Residents

Examination of estimated expenses versus possible available resources for Indiana residents in 1985-86 reveals that, on average, a student who can earn up to about $1,100 a year from outside sources (no easy task), *could* attend college from a financial point of view (see Table 4-D1). Unfortunately, the shortfall between expenses and resources is greatest for Blacks (despite Federal Pell Grant Aid, State Assistance, etc.), except at private institutions. The gap is due in a large part to low parental contributions and the limitations placed upon and inter-relationships of certain resources' availability. Another major shortcoming is an apparent ignoring of disadvantaged students' aversion to loans -- especially relative to their families' total income -- which make up a substantial and increasing portion of their total aid package.

* * *

*Some (less than cheerful) Notes About Financial Aid**

Total student financial aid from U.S., State, and campus sources increase 23% since 1980 ... which is 3 percent *less* when inflation is taken into account. Meanwhile:

- Cost of attending college has outpaced this inflation rate,
- Incomes have barely kept pace with the cost of living,
- The number of *eligible* students applying for student aid has continued to climb,
- [Demographic projections will exacerbate the problem.]
- Loans represented 50 percent of all 1985-86 aid, compared to 17 percent of all 1975-76 aid, [with low-income students less likely to seek loans as viable resource for course expenses].
- Almost all of the expected increase in (elementary and secondary) students during the next 15 years will come from families who are poor and minority.

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* *The Green Sheet* (Circular Letter No. 8/'86). The National Association of State Universities & Land-Grant Colleges, Sept. 5, 1986.

TABLE 4-D1

ESTIMATED COLLEGE STUDENT EXPENSES AND RESOURCES OF INDIANA RESIDENTS BY ETHNIC GROUP (MEDIANS): 1986-87 SCHOOL YEAR

	2-Year Public Institutions						4-Year Public Institutions						Private Institutions					
	White students		Black Students		Hispanic Students		White Students		Black Students		Hispanic Students		White Students		Black Students		Hispanic Students	
	Commuter	Resident	Commuter	Resident	Commuter	Resident	Commuter	Resident	Commuter	Resident	Commuter	Resident	Commuter	Resident	Commuter	Resident	Commuter	Resident
Estimated Expenses[1]:																		
Tuition and Fees	$659	$659	$659	$659	$659	$659	$1,242	$1,242	$1,242	$1,242	$1,242	$1,242	$5.418	$5.418	$5.418	$5.418	$5.418	$5.418
Books and Supplies	355	355	355	355	355	355	373	373	373	373	373	373	384	384	384	384	384	384
Student's Room	-	1,180	-	1,180	-	1,180	-	1,237	-	1,237	-	1,237	-	1.391	-	1.391	-	1.391
Student's Board	(590)	1,180	(590)	1,180	(590)	1,180	(618)	1,236	(618)	1,236	(618)	1,236	(695)	1.390	(695)	1.390	(695)	1.390
Personal Expenses (clothing, laundry, medical)	729	729	729	729	729	729	836	836	836	836	836	836	694	694	694	694	694	634
Transportation	704	386	704	386	704	386	704	390	704	390	704	390	704	382	704	382	704	392
Other Expenses (child care, handicap, etc.)	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	?
Total Expenses	$3,037	$4,489	$3,037	$4,489	$3,037	$4,489	$3.773	$5.314	$3.773	$5.314	$3.773	$5.314	$7.895	$9.659	$7.895	$9.659	$7.895	$9.659
Resources:																		
Est. Parental Contrib.[2]	$1,820	$1,820	$170	$170	$620	$620	$1,820	$1,820	$170	$170	$620	$620	$1,820	$1,820	$170	$170	$620	$620
Federal Pell Grant Aid[3]	-	-	1,290	1,750	1,290	1,350	-	-	1.650	1,750	1,350	1,350	-	-	1,750	1,750	1.350	1.350
State Assistance[3]	-	-	340	340	-	-	-	-	750	750	435	435	1,570	1,570	2,720	2,720	2,410	2,410
Institutionally Determined:[3]																		
Gift Aid	-	200	-	-	-	100	-	620	-	-	-	100	-	1,220	-	100	-	300
Work-Study (approximate)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	300	700	-	810	-	-	-
National Direct Student loan (max)	-	-	-	1,200	-	1,500	-	-	-	1,500	300	1,500	-	1.500	1,500	1,500	1,500	1,560
Guaranteed Student Loan (max)[3]	-	1,500	-	-	-	-	1,000	1,700	-	-	-	-	2,500	2,500	-	2,500	1,000	2,500
Student Contribution From Assests[4]	224	224	145	145	170	170	224	224	145	145	170	170	224	224	145	145	170	170
Total Resources (except student contribution)	$2,044	$3,744	$1,945	$3,605	$2,080	$3,740	$3,044	$4,364	$2,715	$4,315	$2,875	$4,475	$6,814	$8,834	$7,095	$8,885	$7,050	$8,850
Unmet Need[5]	$993	$745	$1,092	$884	$957	$749	$729	$950	$1,058	$999	$898	$839	$1,081	$825	$800	$774	$845	$809

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[1] College Scholarship Service, CSS Counselor's Source Book for 1986-87. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1985, p. 47. (National averages but very similar to Indiana)

[2] College Board, College-Bound Seniors, 1985: Indiana (Table 10). Admissions Testing Program, 1985.

[3] Estimated by Office of Financial Aid, Purdue University, Feb. 1986, using 1985-86 Pell Grand Schedule and State Awards.

[4] College Scholarship Service, Institutional Summary Data for Academic Year 1985-86: Indiana Higher Education (Table 7). College Board, Sept. 1985, p.9.

[5] To be met by outside gifts, non-work-study employment earnings, etc.

(3) Relationships Between Parental Contribution to Education and SAT Scores: Indiana Residents

Average SAT scores are positively related to parental income and contribution. Half of those students with parental contribution $8000 or more also plan to apply for financial aid, compared to 94 percent of the students with no parental contribution. It is important to remember here that Blacks and Hispanics, compared with Whites, have lower median parental income ($18,200 and $25,107 vs. $30,800), lower median parental contribution ($170 and $620 vs. $1,820), and lower average SAT score (352 and 400 vs. 447). They also have a lower ratio of contribution to income (0.9% and 2.5% vs. 5.9%). Thus, Minorities are in special need of financial aid.

TABLE 4-D2

ESTIMATED PARENTAL CONTRIBUTION TOWARD APPLICANTS' EDUCATION BY SAT AVERAGE FOR INDIANA: 1985

	Percent Planning to Apply for Financial Aid		SAT Average					
Parental Contribution	By Contribution Level	Of All Students	Below 400	1400-499	500-599	600 or Over	No SAT	All Students
$0 ▶	94.3%	20.3%	26.0% ▶	19.9% ▶	16.3%	12.8%	33.4% ▷	21.5%
$1-499	91.7	8.8	10.9	10.0	7.9	6.2	10.0	9.6
$500-999	89.8	8.0	8.9	9.3	8.6	8.3	8.1	8.9
$1000-1499	88.8	8.3	9.6	9.5	9.1	7.3	8.1	9.3
$1500-1999	85.5	5.6	6.4	6.7	6.8	7.5	5.4	6.6
$2000-2999	83.1	9.0	10.4	11.3	11.1	10.8	8.3	10.8
$3000-3999	74.2	5.3	6.4	7.2	7.8	8.6	6.6	7.1
$4000-5999	71.4	7.5	9.4	10.5	12.2	12.9	8.7	10.5
$6000-7999	60.4	4.0	5.5	6.4	8.2	9.8	4.3	6.6
$8000-Over ◀	50.3	4.6	6.5	9.2	11.8 ◀	15.9 ◀	7.0	9.2
TOTAL	80.8%	80.8%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number Responses	33,240		9,438	10,796	6,254	1,689	1,664	29,841
% of Total	100.0%		31.6%	36.2%	21.0%	5.7%	5.6%	100.0%
Median Contribution	$1,210		$1,210	$1,592	$2,100	$2,759	$900	$1,590
Median Income	$27,700		$27,460	$30,180	$33,279	$36,087	$24,600	$30,000
Ratio of Median Contrib. to Income	4.4%		4.4%	5.3%	6.3%	7.6%	3.7%	5.3%

Note: *Blacks and Hispanics, compared with Whites, have lower median parental income ($18,200 & $25,107 vs. $30,800), lower median parental contribution ($170 & $620 vs. $1,820), and lower average SAT score (352 & 400 vs. 447). They also have a lower ratio of contribution to income (0.9% & 2.5% vs. 5.9%).*

Source: College-Bound Seniors, 1985: Indiana Report, College Board, Admissions Testing Program, 1985.

5. EMPLOYMENT TRENDS

Demographic changes resulting from the rapidly increasing representation of Minorities within the population will continue to have a significant impact on the labor force structure and employment.

> ... Hispanics are a youthful subpopulation group with a vast productivity potential. Hispanics are projected to account for at least 8% of the labor force by 1995. Though national demographics will favor lower unemployment over the next 12 years as prime-age workers make up a larger share of the work force, the particular demographic trends of the Hispanic community indicate the opposite, since its high birth rates and lower median age mean that Hispanics will be entering the workforce at a high rate.
>
> One long-range effect of this demographic trend is that the taxable salaries of Hispanic [and Black] workers will be increasingly vital to the fiscal viability of many domestic programs, especially Social Security, which relies on withholding allowances of current workers for the support of current retirees. It is not unrealistic to envision an aged White population being supported by an increasing non-White workforce. Therefore, changes in public policy, which recognize these demographic realities, are necessary in order to bring about greater parity in the labor market for minority subpopulation groups....[(p.9)]
>
> Responsive policies from the federal [and state] government, policies which recognize the educational crisis faced by Hispanics [and Blacks], are crucial if ... [Minorities] are to become productive workers. Education is inextricable bound to earning levels. Higher education not only raises wage rates, it also lowers the probability and duration of unemployment spells, which ultimately translate to lower earnings.
>
> ... Therefore, to enable Hispanics and other minority groups to make their full contribution in the future -- and to assure a trained work force which can meet the future needs of the U.S. economy -- human investment partnerships must develop between the public, private, and nonprofit sectors. ... [Minorities represent] a human resource, whose reservoirs must be tapped in order to maximize its work force participation and productivity potential. The investment should be made now in order to reap societal benefits and protect the nation's economic security tomorrow.[1] (p.9)

A. Employment Status

(1) General Situation

According to the 1980 U.S. Census, approximately six of 10 persons aged 16 or older are in the labor force. In recent years this labor force participation rate has been increasing due primarily to increasing numbers and percent of women entering the workplace,[1] especially new mothers.[2] According to the Census Bureau, almost half (48.4%) of women with children under one year old were in the labor force in June 1985, compared to 38 percent in 1980 (a 26% increase).

The highest national labor force participation rates are associated with Asian-Americans and Hispanics, and the lowest, with Native Americans and Blacks. However, although Blacks have some of the lowest participation rates, they are representing an increasing proportion of the labor force (see Figure 5-A1).

The higher participation rate for Hispanics has been attributed by some economists to the younger average age of Hispanics because of higher participation rates among younger, as opposed to older, adults.[1] However,

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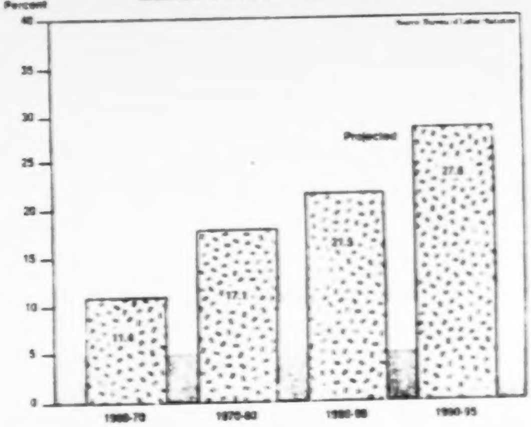
[1] National Council of LaRaza, *Hispanics in the Labor Force Market: 1980-1985*. Washington, D.C.: LaRaza, Dec. 1985. (See Attachment II).

[2] Paul Clancy, "Half of New Mothers Are Back at Work." *USA Today*, Thursday, June 26, 1986.

FIGURE 5-A1

Black Workers: Percent Share of Labor Force: 1960-1995



Source: "Here They Come, Ready or Not," Education Week (Special Report), May 14, 1986, Vol. V (No. 34), p. 31.

> Hispanics face severe, continuing unemployment and underemployment. During both good and bad economic times, unemployment among Hispanics is usually 60% higher than that of White Americans. ... [And] double-digit unemployment has been a pattern for both the Hispanic and Black communities during the last five years.[1] (p.8)

> Unemployment rates for black men and women in virtually all age categories have increased fairly steadily since 1965. In 1982-83, about 1 out of every 5 blacks in the labor market were unemployed, with much higher rates for teenagers and young adults.
>
> Unemployment rates and labor force participation rates are strongly correlated with educational attainment for both blacks and whites. However for blacks, marked differences in employability occur only for those with a college degree.[3] (p. iv)

In addition, official unemployment rates do not include long-term discouarged workers or persons working part-time for economic reasons only.[1]

Of special concern during the past few years has been the increasing displacement of U.S. workers from previously stable jobs because of structural changes in the U.S. and world economies. Particularly hard-hit by displacement have been Minority workers.

> ... Many of the displaced are middle-aged unskilled or semiskilled manufacturing workers, with long and stable job histories. Given the pace of technological and structural economic change, they may be left behind.
>
> These forces are also responsible for the loss of job opportunities for many younger workers. ... Indeed, in some industries, it will be impossible even to maintain current levels of employment....
>
> Over the 5 years from 1979 to 1984, 11.5 million American workers lost jobs because of plant shutdowns or relocations, rising productivity, or shrinking output.... Of those who found new jobs, at least half took cuts in earnings.
>
> Although manufacturing now accounts for less than 20 percent of U.S. employment, nearly half of all workers displaced from 1979 to 1984 worked in manufacturing industries, especially those hard hit by international competition (such as steel, automobiles, industrial equipment, textiles, and apparel). The service jobs that the U.S. economy has created in the past years are not equivalent to the old manufacturing jobs..., and the better service jobs require skills or education that most displaced workers do not have....
>
> For many displaced workers, retraining is the best avenue to a good job with possibilities for advancement. ... Still, strong emphasis on education and training for a substantial minority of people appears to be lacking.
>
> Remedial education for the large number (perhaps 20 percent) of displaced workers lacking basic skills is a clear but unmet need....
>
> Given the incentives leading U.S. firms to invest overseas and take advantage of cheap labor, or to use less labor at home, displacement is bound to continue. Manufacturing jobs --

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[3] The College Board, Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black Americans. New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, 1985. (See Attachment I.)

> especially production jobs -- will continue to decline as a fraction of total employment; they are likely to continue to decline in absolute numbers as well. Within manufacturing, the most vulnerable jobs are those of unskilled and semiskilled production workers. These jobs are not only the easiest to automate, they are also the easiest to move overseas....
>
> Another group of displaced people, with especially difficult problems of finding adequate jobs, is displaced homemakers. ... The number of displaced homemakers facing serious employment problems is in the millions, and is growing. ... Barriers to employment are higher for displaced homemakers than for mainstream displaced workers, because many have little experience in a paid job. Barriers to training are also high because most of these women have no unemployment insurance or other income cushion to see them through training.
>
> To meet the challenge of living with global competition while enhancing the quality of its citizens' lives, the United States will have to move on many fronts to upgrade the skills of its work force and to make the best use of the abilities of its people.[4] (pp. 6-9, underline added)

(2) Employment Status and Educational Level

Employment levels vary greatly across levels of attained education.[5,6] This is especially evident among teenagers when high-school graduates and dropouts are compared. In 1982, 21 percent of White graduates were unemployed, compared with 36 percent of dropouts. For Blacks, the rates were 58 percent of graduates and 71 percent of dropouts. One reason for higher Black rates is probably the (already discussed) lower academic proficiencies of Blacks, even among high-school graduates. Similarly, in 1985, 50 percent of White teenagers were employed, compared with 33 percent of Hispanic teenagers and only 24 percent of Black teenagers.

Significant differences in labor force composition and employment levels also exist for adults 25 through 64 years of age (see Tables 5-A1 and 5-A2). According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the educational level of the civilian labor force has been increasing (Table 5-A2), both for Whites and for Minorities. Between 1975 and 1985, the labor force has included a decreasing percentage of high-school non-graduates and increasing percentages of persons who have some college experience, especially four or more years for Whites and some-college-only for Blacks and Hispanics. Nevertheless, the educational levels of Blacks and Hispanics still remain well below that of Whites. Significantly, the proportion of Black adults in the civilian labor force with less than four years of high school is nearly twice as large as it is for White adults (26% vs. 15%), and the proportion of Hispanic adults with less than four years of high school is nearly three times that of Whites (44% vs. 15%).

A pronounced difference also exists in labor force participation rates across levels of attained education (Tables 5-A1 and 5-A2). Accordingly, the higher the level of attained education, the higher the rate of participation in the labor force (e.g., 60% participation of high-school non-graduates in the labor force in 1985, compared to 88% participation of persons with four or more years of college).

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[4] Office of Technology Assessment, Technology and Structural Unemployment: Reemploying Displaced Adults (Summary). Washington,D.C.: U.S. Congress, February, 1986.

[5] Business Advisory Commission, Reconnecting Youth: The Next Stage of Reform. Education Commission of the States, Denver, CO., Oct. 1985, p. 15. See Attachment IX.

[6] "Here They Come, Ready or Not," Education Week (Special Report). May 14, 1986, Vol. V (No.34), p.31.

TABLE 5-A1

U.S. LABOR FORCE AND LABOR-FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES FOR PERSONS 25 TO 64 YEARS OLD BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED AND ETHNIC GROUP: MARCH 1975, 1980 AND 1985

(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

Years of school completed	Total			White			Black			Spanish Origin*		
	1975	1980	1985	1975	1980	1985	1975	1980	1985	1975	1980	1985
Total Labor Force.........	68,003	78,010	88,424	60,608	68,509	76,739	6,666	7,729	9,157	2,893	3,760	5,412
% of Labor Force......	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
< 4 yrs of high school..	27.6	20.6	15.9	25.8	19.1	14.7	46.1	34.7	26.2	54.3	47.5	43.5
High School: 4 yrs only.	39.8	39.8	40.2	40.6	40.2	40.7	33.0	38.1	39.5	26.0	30.0	32.0
College: 1 to 3 yrs....	14.3	17.6	19.0	14.6	17.7	19.1	11.9	16.2	19.2	10.9	13.0	13.7
4 yrs or more.	18.2	22.0	24.9	19.0	22.9	25.6	9.1	11.0	15.0	8.8	9.5	10.8
LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES:												
Total % of Population....	70.6%	73.9%	76.2%	70.8%	74.2%	76.6%	69.4%	71.5%	73.4%	66.7%	70.5%	71.1%
< 4 yrs of high school..◀	61.8	60.7	59.9	62.0	61.4	60.7	61.2	58.1	57.1 ◀	60.5	63.5	62.6
High School: 4 yrs only.	70.6	74.2	75.9	70.1	73.7	75.8	75.2	79.2	77.2	71.7	75.0	75.9
College: 1 to 3 yrs....	75.7	79.5	81.6	75.4	79.2	81.1	81.1	82.1	85.6	78.9	82.3	82.8
4 yrs or more. ◁	84.6	86.1	87.7	84.6	86.0	87.7	88.3	90.3	89.9 ◁	87.6	84.0	87.0

* May be of any race.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics News (USDL 85-355), Labor Day, 1985.

Particularly interesting is the observation that Blacks with attained education of high-school graduation or higher have had higher participation rates than similar Whites, although the difference has been decreasing. However, the participation rate of Blacks with four or more years of college background have declined between 1983 and 1985 from 92 to 90 percent, although rates for such Whites and Hispanics have continued to increase (see Table 5-A2).

Not only do adults with greater attained education participate to a greater extent in the labor force, but they also experience lower unemployment rates (i.e., greater extent of employment), irrespective of ethnic group. For example, the unemployment rate for adults with four or more years of college education was only 2 percent in 1985, compared to 11 percent for adults who did not complete high school. Possibly due in part to their lower levels of academic proficiency, Blacks and Hispanics at each level of attained education had higher unemployment rates.

Because of their decreasing labor force participation rates and the much lower employment rates of those who do participate, people who do not achieve at least the equivalent of high school graduation — as well as the community that allows it to happen — will be at an increasing disadvantage and risk in the job market.

One conclusion is evident from these data: increase the educational levels of citizens, and labor force participation and employment rates, as well as revenues, will also increase -- not to mention decreased need for social welfare expenditures.

TABLE 5-A2

U.S. LABOR-FORCE STATUS OF PERSONS 25 TO 64 YEARS OLD BY YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED AND ETHNIC GROUP: MARCH 1983, 1984 AND 1985

(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

Labor force status and years of school completed	Total			White			Black			Spanish Origin*		
	1983	1984	1985	1983	1984	1985	1983	1984	1985	1983	1984	1985
Civilian noninstitutional popul.	111,658	113,997	116,023	96,864	98,687	100,163	11,739	12,186	12,482	6,258	7,291	7,607
8 yrs of school or less.......	11,122	10,886	10,409	8,881	8,655	8,279	1,879	1,884	1,738	2,291	2,560	2,617
1 to 3 yrs of high school.....	13,513	13,263	13,130	10,796	10,530	10,353	2,444	2,438	2,472	928	1,122	1,140
High school: 4 yrs only.......	44,815	46,158	46,821	39,516	40,622	41,130	4,430	4,606	4,688	1,799	2,088	2,281
College: 1 to 3 years.....	18,996	19,564	20,600	16,755	17,207	18,035	1,756	1,864	2,053	721	901	893
4 yrs or more....	23,213	24,124	25,063	20,914	21,672	22,367	1,230	1,395	1,530	519	618	675
Civilian labor force...........	83,615	86,025	88,424	72,750	74,796	76,739	8,592	8,985	9,157	4,378	5,213	5,412
8 yrs of school or less.......	6,095	5,987	5,615	4,942	4,870	4,543	982	981	867	1,374	1,560	1,593
1 to 3 yrs of high school.....	8,762	8,592	8,485	7,035	6,841	6,761	1,543	1,566	1,536	613	769	760
High school: 4 yrs only.......	33,397	34,562	35,541	29,301	30,341	31,197	3,459	3,573	3,620	1,378	1,607	1,732
College: 1 to 3 years.....	15,159	15,755	16,802	13,304	13,771	14,630	1,483	1,598	1,757	578	752	739
4 yrs or more....	20,201	21,131	21,981	18,171	18,973	19,607	1,127	1,265	1,376	434	524	587
Labor force participation rate.	74.9%	75.5%	76.2%	75.1%	75.8%	76.6%	73.2%	73.7%	73.4%	70.0%	71.5%	71.1%
8 yrs of school or less......◀	54.8	55.0	53.9	55.6	56.3	54.9	52.3	52.1	▶ 49.9	60.0	60.9	▶ 60.9
1 to 3 yrs of high school.....	64.8	64.8	64.6	65.2	65.0	65.3	63.1	64.2	62.1	66.1	68.5	66.7
High school: 4 yrs only.......	74.5	74.9	75.9	74.1	74.7	75.8	78.1	77.6	77.2	76.6	77.0	75.9
College: 1 to 3 years.....	79.8	80.5	81.6	79.4	80.0	81.1	84.5	85.7	85.6	80.2	83.5	82.8
4 yrs or more...◁	87.0	87.6	87.7	86.9	87.5	87.7	91.6	90.7	▷ 89.9	83.6	84.8	▷ 87.0
Employed.......................	76,098	80,375	83,060	66,915	70,490	72,656	7,152	7,792	8,056	3,777	4,719	4,894
8 yrs of school or less.......	5,154	5,294	4,980	4,188	4,331	4,050	819	839	747	1,129	1,363	1,376
1 to 3 yrs of high school.....	7,352	7,531	7,516	5,992	6,102	6,062	1,204	1,268	1,287	510	666	665
High school: 4 yrs only.......	30,051	32,061	33,094	26,595	28,411	29,292	2,806	3,055	3,150	1,208	1,480	1,588
College: 1 to 3 years.....	14,047	14,924	16,019	12,443	13,131	14,065	1,287	1,441	1,571	523	702	696
4 yrs or more....	19,493	20,564	21,452	17,600	18,515	19,189	1,036	1,187	1,302	407	508	567
Unemployed.....................	7,518	5,650	5,364	5,835	4,306	4,083	1,440	1,192	1,099	602	496	519
8 yrs of school or less.......	942	693	635	755	540	493	162	142	120	247	198	218
1 to 3 yrs of high school.....	1,410	1,062	970	1,042	739	699	339	297	248	103	104	96
High school: 4 yrs only.......	3,347	2,500	2,446	2,606	1,931	1,905	653	519	469	170	128	144
College: 1 to 3 years.....	1,112	830	784	86	638	565	197	155	187	55	49	43
4 yrs or more....	708	565	529	570	457	419	91	79	74	27	16	19
Unemployment rate..............	9.0%	6.6%	6.1%	8.0%	5.8%	5.3%	16.8%	13.3%	12.0%	13.8%	9.5%	9.6%
8 yrs of school or less......◀	15.5	11.6	▷ 11.3	15.3	11.1	10.9	16.5	14.5	13.8	18.0	12.7	13.7
1 to 3 yrs of high school.....	16.1	12.4	11.4	14.8	10.8	10.3	22.0	19.0	16.1	16.8	13.5	12.6
High school: 4 yrs only.......	10.0	7.2	6.9	8.9	6.4	6.1	18.9	14.5	13.0	12.3	8.0	8.3
College: 1 to 3 years.....	7.3	5.3	4.7	6.5	4.6	3.9	13.3	9.7	10.6	9.5	6.5	5.8
4 yrs or more...◁	3.5	2.7	▷ 2.4	3.1	2.4	2.1	8.1	6.2	5.4	6.2	3.1	3.2

* May be of any race.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics News, USDL 84-388, August 31, 1984; USDL 85-355, Labor Day, 1985.

(3) Employment Status: U.S. and Indiana

According to the 1980 census, there were 96.3 million adults 20 years old and over in the civilian U.S. labor force (see Table 5-A3), and 2.35 million, in Indiana's civilian labor force. Of these labor forces 90.7 million were employed in the U.S. (94.1%), and 2.19 million, in Indiana (93%). Accordingly, the unemployment rate was higher in Indiana (7.0%) than in the U.S. in general (5.9%).

TABLE 5-A3

CIVILIAN LABOR-FORCE STATUS FOR THE UNITED STATES AND INDIANA BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980 AND 1984

(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

	TOTAL		WHITE		MINORITY					
					Total[1]		Black		Spanish Origin	
UNITED STATES	1980	1984	1980	1984	1980	1984	1980	1984	1980	1984
Persons 16 & Over:										
Civilian Labor Force	104,450	113,544	89,192	98,492	15,258	15,052	10,582	12,033	5,993	7,247
Employment	97,639	105,005	84,027	92,120	13,612	12,885	9,334	10,119	5,457	6,469
Unemployment	6,811	8,539	5,165	6,372	1,646	2,167	1,248	1,914	536	778
Unemployment Rate	6.5%	7.5%	5.8%	6.5%	10.8%	14.4%	11.8%	15.9%	8.9%	10.7%
Persons 20 & Over:										
Civilian Labor Force	96,301	105,601	82,169	91,540	14,132	14,061	9,832	11,206	5,428	6,662
Employment	90,666	98,561	77,909	86,284	12,757	12,277	8,792	9,645	4,984	6,026
Unemployment	5,635	7,040	4,260	5,256	1,375	1,784	1,041	1,561	443	636
Unemployment Rate ◀	5.9%	6.7%	5.2%	▶ 5.7%	9.7%	▶ 12.7%	10.6%	13.9%	8.2%	9.5%
Persons 16-19:										
Civilian Labor Force	8,149	7,943	7,023	6,952	1,126	991	750	827	565	585
Employment	6,973	6,444	6,118	5,836	855	608	542	474	472	444
Unemployment	1,175	1,499	904	1,116	271	383	208	353	93	142
Unemployment Rate ◁	14.4%	18.9%	12.9%	▷ 16.0%	24.1%	▷ 38.6%	27.7%	42.7%	16.4%	24.2%
INDIANA										
Persons 16 & Over:										
Civilian Labor Force	2,566.8	2,627	2,364.3	2,443	202.5	184	175.1	168	34.3	24
Employment	2,366.3	2,400	2,194.4	2,256	171.8	145	147.5	129	30.2	21
Unemployment	200.5	226	169.8	187	30.7	39	27.6	39	4.1	4
Unemployment Rate	7.8%	8.6%	7.2%	7.6%	15.2%	21.2%	15.7%	23.3%	11.9%	15.3%
Persons 20 & Over:										
Civilian Labor Force	2,352.7	2,418	2,165.7	2,246	187.0	172	161.6	157	31.1	NA
Employment	2,188.9	2,230	2,027.8	2,092	161.0	138	138.2	122	27.8	NA
Unemployment	163.8	188	137.8	154	26.0	34	23.4	34	3.3	NA
Unemployment Rate ◀	7.0%	7.8%	6.4%	▶ 6.9%	13.9%	▶ 19.8%	14.5%	21.7%	10.6%	--
Persons 16-19:										
Civilian Labor Force	214.0	209	198.6	197	15.4	12	13.4	11	3.1	NA
Employment	177.4	172	166.6	164	10.7	8	9.3	7	2.4	NA
Unemployment	36.7	38	32.0	33	4.7	5	4.2	5	.8	NA
Unemployment Rate ◁	17.1%	18.1%	16.1%	16.8%	30.5%	▷ 35.9%	31.0%	40.3%	24.3%	--

[1] *Estimated as all Non-Whites.*

Source: *1980 Data: 1980 U.S. Census.*
1984 Data: Labor Market Information and Statistical Services, Indiana Employment Security Division (Annual Averages)

By 1984 the adult civilian labor force had increased almost 10 percent to 105.6 million, while that in Indiana increased less than 3 percent to 2.42 million. However, for both the U.S. in general and Indiana, unemployment rates also increased (to 6.7% and 7.8%, respectively), not having fully recovered from the 1982 recession. [By March 1986, the civilian labor force 16 years and older had increased further to 116.3 million in the U.S. and 2.74 million in Indiana, while unemployment rates remained roughly constant in the U.S. but declined in Indiana (see Section 4, Table 5-A7).]

Blacks and Spanish-origin persons in 1980 represented 15.8 percent of the adult civilian labor force in the U.S. and 8.2 percent in Indiana. By 1984, this representation had increased to 16.9 percent in the U.S. but may have decreased in Indiana. These Minorities (especially Blacks) have tended to have much higher unemployment rates, and between 1980 and 1984 the difference increased (see Table 5-A3). Accordingly, in 1984 the U.S. unemployment rates were 13.9 percent for Blacks and 9.5 percent for Spanish-origin persons, compared to 6.7 percent for Whites.

Employment status is even more crucial for teenagers 16 through 19 years of age, in that Minorities have such a high proportion of high-school dropouts and thus a high proportion of teenagers potentially in the labor force. In 1980, there were 8.1 million teenagers 16 through 19 in the U.S. civilian labor force and 0.21 million in Indiana's civilian labor force (see Table 5-A3). Of these teenagers respectively, 16.1 percent were U.S. Blacks and Spanish-origin persons, while 7.7 percent were Indiana Blacks or Spanish. By 1984, the number of teenagers in the labor force had declined 2.5 percent in the U.S. and 2.3 percent in Indiana. However, the number of Black or Spanish teenagers in the labor force increased during this same period 7.4 percent in the U.S. (and probably comparably in Indiana although Spanish data are not available for 1984). Consequently, Black and Spanish teenager representation among all teenagers increased from 16.1 percent to 17.8 percent in the U.S. in general.

While the number and representation of Black and Spanish teenagers in the labor force were increasing, unemployment numbers and rates were likewise increasing, especially among Blacks. While the overall U.S. teenager unemployment rate increased from 14.4 percent to 18.9 percent, that of Blacks increased from 27.7 percent to 42.7 percent. Likewise, while the overall Indiana teenager unemployment rate increased from 17.1 percent to 18.1 percent, among Blacks the increase was from 31.0 percent to 40.3 percent.

Since the second quarter of 1984, U.S. civilian employment (seasonally adjusted) has increased approximately 3.3 percent while unemployment has remained constant or declined slightly. By ethnic group, employment increase has been approximately 11 percent for Hispanics, 8 percent for Blacks and 3 percent for Whites. Meanwhile, unemployment rates have shown a decrease for all except, perhaps, Hispanics. Changes, however, for Hispanics are tentative because of new and improved procedures for calculating illegal immigration counts.

During this same time period, employment has increased for all major occupational groups, except ag-ricultural ones. The greatest increases have occurred for Protective Services (12%), Managerial (7%), and Administrative Support (6%) occupations. It is noteworthy that occupational unemployment rates are much higher for Operators and Laborers (12.3%), Agricultural workers (12.4%), "Other" Service workers (9.6%), and Precision, Craft and Repair workers (9.5%), the very occupations within which Blacks and Hispanics have been overrepresented. These occupations will continue to experience high unemployment because of the changing industrial structure within the U.S., especially with increasing automation, and international competition.

TABLE 5-A4

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF U.S. LABOR FORCE: 1984-86
(SEASONALLY ADJUSTED)

TOTAL	1984 Q2	1985 Q2	1986 Feb[1/]
Labor Force (Millions)[1/]	115.3	116.9	118.8
Total Employment......	106.8	108.5	110.3
Civilian Labor Force...	113.6	115.2	117.1
Employment............	105.1	106.8	108.6
Unemployment..........	8.5	8.4	8.5
Unemployment, All Civilian Workers...	7.48%	7.31%	7.28%
BY ETHNIC GROUP, SEX, AGE & BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUP[2/]			
CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE (MILL.):	1984 MARCH	1985 MARCH	1986 FEB.
WHITE Labor Force...........	98.3	100.0	101.2
Employment................	91.7	93.8	94.8
Unemployment..............	6.6	6.2	6.4
All, 16 to 19 Yrs. Old.....	7.1	7.1	6.9
Employment................	5.9	6.0	5.8
Unemployment..............	1.2	1.1	1.1
Black Labor Force...........	11.8	12.3	12.5
Employment................	9.9	10.4	10.7
Unemployment..............	2.0	1.9	1.9
All, 16 to 19 Yrs Old......	.8	.9	.9
Employment................	.4	.5	.6
Unemployment..............	.4	.4	.4
Spanish-Origin Labor Force..	7.1	7.4	7.9
Employment................	6.3	6.6	7.0
Unemployment..............	.8	.8	1.0
Occupational Group			
Exec., Adm., Mgrl., Employ..	11.5	12.3	12.2
Unemployment..............	.3	.3	.4
Professional Employment.....	13.5	13.7	13.8
Unemployment..............	.3	.3	.3
Technicians & Related Employ	3.2	3.2	3.4
Unemployment..............	.1	.1	.1
Sales Occupations Employment	12.2	12.5	12.7
Unemployment..............	.7	.7	.8
Admin. Support Employment...	16.5	17.4	17.6
Unemployment..............	.9	.9	.9
Protective Service Employ...	1.6	1.7	1.8
Unemployment..............	.1	.1	.1
Other Service Employment....	12.3	12.6	12.9
Unemployment..............	1.4	1.3	1.4
Prec., Craft, Repair Employ.	12.6	13.1	12.8
Unemployment..............	1.3	1.2	1.3
Oper.,Fabric.,Laborer Employ	16.4	16.3	16.7
Unemployment..............	2.4	2.3	2.3
Farm,Forest,Fishing Employ..	3.0	3.1	2.7
Unemployment..............	.4	.4	.4
UNEMPLOYMENT RATES:			
White Workers...............	6.7%	6.3%	6.4%
All, 16 to 19 Yrs. Old....	16.9%	15.1%	16.2%
Black Workers...............	16.6%	15.2%	14.8%
All, 16 to 19 Yrs. Old....	46.6%	42.0%	39.1%
Spanish-Origin Workers......	11.4%	10.2%	12.3%
Occupational Groups			
Exec.,Adm.,Mgrl. Workers....	3.0%	2.7%	2.8%
Professional Workers........	1.9%	2.0%	1.9%
Techn. & Related Workers....	2.6%	3.5%	3.9%
Sales Workers...............	5.6%	5.5%	6.1%
Admin. Support Workers......	5.8%	4.8%	4.9%
Protective Service Workers..	6.6%	4.6%	5.8%
Other Service Workers.......	9.9%	9.4%	9.6%
Prec.,Craft,Repair Workers..	9.1%	8.4%	9.5%
Oper.,Fabr.,Laborers........	12.8%	12.5%	12.3%
Farm,Forest,Fishing Workers.	11.2%	10.7%	12.4%

[1/] Probably reflects major revision (and improvement) in calculation procedures of illegal immigration counts.

[2/] Occupational group employment status numbers and unemployment rates are not seasonally adjusted.

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics News (Monthly), U.S. Dept. of Labor, Washington, D.C.

(4) Employment Status: Selected Indiana Counties

Unfortunately, current employment status statistics are not available for Indiana counties or even Indiana in general. However, according to the 1980 census, 24 percent (614,000) of Indiana's 2.57 million civilian labor force 16 years or older was located in just two of Indiana's 92 counties (i.e., Marion and Lake Counties). Another 10 percent were in Allen and St. Joseph Counties (see Appendix 5-A6), for a total of more than one-third of Indiana's labor force in just four counties. Furthermore, these four counties contained 78 percent (163,600) of Indiana's 209,300 Black and Spanish workers. The total 22 selected counties contained two-thirds of Indiana's total labor force but 97 percent of non-White workers.

The total labor-force unemployment rate in these 22 counties was comparable to that of Indiana in general (7.8%). However, the White unemployment rate in these counties was much lower (6.9%) than Indiana's general rate for Whites, while that of non-Whites was comparable to the state rate for non-Whites (15.1%) but still well above the White rate. The unemployment rate for Non-Whites in the nonselected counties was lower (13.0%) than that in the selected counties (15.2%). However, a wide diversity existed across counties within each ethnic group.

Among teenagers 16 through 19 years old, one-third (71,800) of the 214,000 who were in the civilian labor force were located in just four counties: Marion, Lake, Allen and St. Joseph (see Appendix 5-A7). These four counties contained 30 percent of the Indiana White teenage labor force but 75 percent of non-White teenage workers.

Teenage unemployment was high (> 13.5%) for all but two selected counties: Tippecanoe and Hamilton. Again, a wide diversity existed across counties within each ethnic group.

Between 1982 and March 1986, while Indiana's civilian labor force grew much less than the U.S.'s in general (3.7% vs. 5.5%), in the selected counties, the labor force grew even less (2.8%). In fact, in Indiana's second largest county (Lake), it actually shrank 12 percent (see Table 5-A5), giving the top four counties a net loss (-1%). Other counties with major losses were LaPorte (-15.5%), Vigo (-4.5%) and Porter (-2.9%), while major increases occurred in Monroe (30.3%), Elkhart (24.0%), Hamilton (13.6%), Bartholomew (9.3%), Miami (8.5%), Floyd (7.8%), Johnson (7.3%), Madison (6.9%), Delaware (5.8%), Clark (5.6%) and Allen (4.7%).

During this time period, Indiana's unemployment rate decreased much more (from 11.9% to 7.4%) than the U.S.'s rate (from 9.7% to 7.5%), bringing Indiana in line with the U.S. in general. The rate in Indiana's selected counties, however, decreased slightly more and was somewhat lower in 1986 than the nonselected-county rate (7.2% vs. 7.8%). Although all 22 counties experienced reductions in unemployment rates, rates in March 1986 remained rather high in Lake (11.9%), Wayne (11.4%), Howard (10.6%) and Porter (9.9%). Thus, some counties were still experiencing economic difficulties, especially in northwest Indiana.

TABLE 5-A5

CIVILIAN LABOR-FORCE STATUS FOR THE UNITED STATES, INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES: 1982, 1985, AND MARCH 1986

(ESTIMATES, NOT SEASONALLY ADJUSTED)

	CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE			EMPLOYMENT			UNEMPLOYMENT			UNEMPLOYMENT RATE		
	1982	1985	March '86	1982	1985	March '86	1982	1985	Mar.'86	1982	1985	Mar.'86
U.S. (Th)	110,204.0	115,462.0	116,310.0	99,526.0	107,150.0	107,643.0	10,678.0	8,312.0	8,667.0	9.7%	7.2%	7.5%
Indiana	2,599,000	2,735,000	2,696,400	2,289,000	2,520,000	2,496,400	310,000	215,000	200,000	11.9%	7.9%	7.4%
Marion Co.	395,800	411,400	406,000	355,500	383,900	381,700	40,300	27,500	24,300	10.2%	6.7%	6.0%
Lake	235,600	215,000	207,900	197,200	187,200	183,100	38,400	27,800	24,800	16.3%	12.9%	11.9%
Allen	143,500	151,400	150,300	126,600	141,900	141,700	16,900	9,500	8,600	11.3%	6.3%	5.7%
St. Joseph	121,100	125,200	123,500	109,300	116,600	115,600	11,800	8,600	7,900	9.8%	6.9%	6.4%
Vanderburgh	80,900	85,600	83,300	72,600	79,200	78,100	8,300	6,400	5,200	10.2%	7.5%	6.2%
Madison	56,400	61,400	60,300	47,400	56,900	56,100	9,000	4,500	4,200	15.9%	7.3%	6.9%
LaPorte	58,600	50,500	49,500	42,000	45,800	45,100	6,600	4,700	4,400	13.6%	9.2%	8.9%
Delaware	55,600	59,200	58,800	47,800	54,300	54,300	7,800	4,900	4,500	14.0%	8.2%	7.7%
Vigo	51,200	50,100	48,900	45,600	45,800	44,800	5,600	4,300	4,100	11.0%	8.5%	8.4%
Elkhart	70,300	87,900	87,200	63,200	82,400	82,600	7,100	5,500	4,600	10.0%	6.3%	5.2%
Grant	36,100	37,500	36,900	31,500	34,300	33,900	4,600	3,200	3,000	12.6%	8.6%	8.0%
Howard	41,500	42,000	41,400	34,400	38,900	37,000	7,100	3,100	4,400	17.1%	7.3%	10.6%
Clark	42,500	45,200	44,900	36,800	41,500	41,500	5,700	3,700	3,400	13.4%	8.2%	7.6%
Monroe	43,500	56,700	56,700	39,400	53,600	54,000	4,100	3,100	2,700	9.4%	5.4%	4.7%
Wayne	34,900	38,800	35,300	29,800	34,900	31,300	5,100	3,900	4,000	14.6%	10.1%	11.4%
Tippecanoe	63,000	64,200	64,000	58,400	61,200	61,200	4,600	3,000	2,800	7.4%	4.6%	4.4%
Floyd	28,900	31,400	31,150	25,350	29,200	29,200	3,550	2,200	1,950	12.3%	7.2%	6.3%
Porter	51,800	51,100	50,300	45,200	46,400	45,300	6,600	4,700	5,000	12.7%	9.3%	9.9%
Miami	15,075	16,025	16,350	12,975	14,775	15,050	2,100	1,250	1,300	13.9%	7.8%	7.9%
Bartholomew	28,450	37,300	31,100	24,550	34,500	28,650	3,900	2,800	2,450	13.8%	7.5%	7.8%
Johnson	39,500	42,600	42,400	35,900	40,300	40,100	3,600	2,300	2,300	9.1%	5.4%	5.5%
Hamilton	40,300	45,900	45,800	38,100	44,100	43,800	2,200	1,800	2,000	5.5%	4.0%	4.3%
TOTALS												
Sel. 22 Co.	1,724,525	1,806,425	1,772,000	1,519,575	1,667,675	1,644,100	204,950	138,750	127,900	11.9%	7.7%	7.2%
Unsel. 70 Co	874,475	928,575	924,400	769,425	852,325	852,300	105,050	76,250	72,100	12.0%	8.2%	7.8%

Source: *Labor Market Information and Statistical Service, Indiana Employment Security Division in Cooperation with U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, May 1986.*

NOTE: *1982 & 1985 Data are annual averages (rounded).*

B. Occupational Comparisons

(1) General Situation

Black and Hispanic workers, compared with White workers, are more concentrated in those occupations which have the highest unemployment rates: e.g. operator, fabricator and laborer occupations, "other" service occupations, and farm laborer occupations. These occupations also tend to be at the lower end of the pay scale.

> **Although blacks have made strides since 1970 in gaining access to higher-paying and higher-status jobs, whites were still more than twice as likely as blacks to hold jobs in professional or managerial occupations in 1980. Black participation in these [preferred] occupations was also concentrated in jobs at the lower end of the professional pay scale.[1] (p.4)**

A major reason for Minority underrepresentation in higher-level occupations and overrepresentation in lower-level occupations is their lower levels of educational attainment in general. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, occupational level is highly related to attained educational level (see Table 5-B1). Adults in 1984 with less than a high-school graduation tend to be employed in semi-skilled-labor (35%), service (21%) or skilled-labor (19%) occupations. However, adults with at least four years of college tend to be employed in professional (45%) or managerial (23%) occupations.

TABLE 5-B1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED CIVILIANS 25 TO 64 YEARS OF AGE BY OCCUPATION AND YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED: MARCH 1984

Occupation	Total	Years of School Completed			
		< 4 Yrs H.S.	4 Yrs. H.S. only	College 1-3 Yrs.	College ≥4 Yrs.
Total Employed Civilians......	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Exec.,Admin.,Mngrl............	12.9	4.2	8.7	14.7	23.3
Professional Specialty........	15.2	1.1	3.1	11.4	45.4
Technicians & Related Support.	3.3	.7	2.7	5.9	3.9
Sales Occupations.............	11.1	6.7	11.5	13.8	11.0
Admin.Support, Incl. Clerical.	15.7	5.9	21.9	21.7	7.5
Service.......................	11.3	20.8	13.4	9.5	3.1
Precision Prod, Craft & Repair	12.7	19.0	16.7	12.2	3.0
Operator, Fabricator & Laborer	15.3	35.2	19.1	8.7	1.9
Farm, Forestry & Fishery......	2.7	6.3	2.7	2.1	1.1

Source: *Bureau of Labor Statistics News* (USDL 84-388), Aug. 31, 1984.

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[1] The College Board, *Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black Americans*. New York: The College Entrance Examination Board, 1985. (See Attachment I.)

Another possible reason for Minority underrepresentation in higher-level occupations may be career disillusionment resulting from the difficulty encountered by Minorities in advancing their careers to higher levels after entering an occupation. This may be especially true for Black managers.

> Despite their MBAs and their initial attractiveness to corporate recruiters, many black managers say they are blocked by an array of obstacles. Some are longstanding, such as white executives' discomfort with non-whites, the predilection to pick managers of similar backgrounds and outright prejudice. Others arose more recently, including the kinds of jobs that blacks found themselves funneled into as well as the management layoffs that have accompanied mergers and acquisitions.
>
> Moreover, consultants say, many companies have downgraded, if not abandoned, affirmative-action programs.....
>
> The general cultural and social separation of blacks and whites spills over to corporate settings....
>
> Some young blacks ... won't socialize with whites after working with them all day.... "My answer is, much business is done in a social setting rightly or wrongly."
>
> Regardless of their social skills, though, many blacks feel that white executives often view their abilities as suspect, and as a result demand higher standards.
>
> ... "There's a certain amount of perceived risk in promoting a black and so they want to look at you longer and harder.... There's a certain reluctance for people to stick their neck out for blacks."[2] (p.23)

> In 1984, [U.S.] Hispanic workers were especially concentrated in the following occupations:
>
> 1. Technical, sales, and administrative support, where 25.8% of Hispanics in the civilian labor force are employed, compared to 30.9% of the total labor force. Over half of Hispanics (60%) employed in this category are concentrated in administrative support, including clerical work.
> 2. Operators, fabricators, and laborers, where 25.0% of Hispanics in the labor force are employed, compared to 16.0% of the total labor force. Over half of Hispanics (55%) employed in this category are machine operators, assemblers, and inspectors; one-fourth (27%) are handlers, equipment cleaners, and helpers.
> 3. Service occupations, where 17.6% of Hispanics in the labor force are employed, compared to 13.5% of the total labor force. Excluding private household and protective sevice occupations, over four-fifths of Hispanics (83%) employed in this category are concentrated in jobs such as cooks, dishwashers, cleaning service workers, and food counter workers.
>
> Hispanics are underrepresented in the managerial and professional occupations, where only 11.8% of Hispanic workers are employed, compared to 14.0% of Black workers, and 24.0% of White workers. On the other hand, Hispanics are overrepresented in the agriculture industry, where 5.7% of Hispanics are employed, compared to 2.7% of Black workers, and 3.5% of White workers.[3] (pp.4-5)

The occupations which have attracted Blacks and Hispanics are the ones which are being most negatively affected by the changing industrial and business structure of the U.S. and Indiana. Moreover, because a higher percentage of the White population than of Minorities is approaching or entering the retirement years,

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[2] Larry Reibstein, "Many Hurdles, Old and New, Keep Black Managers Out of Top Jobs" and "Minorities Offer Solutions to Accelerate Promotions." *The Wall Street Journal*, Thurs., July 10, 1986, p.23.

> ... the minority population probably will have to supply more of the nation's [current and] future scientists, engineers, and other professionals. The country will face a severe shortage of trained manpower in coming years if minorities fail to get college-level educations.[4] (p.20)

Another special concern is the decreasing supply of qualified teachers, both White and Minority.

> The nation faces its greatest shortage of teachers in the past 20 years. Public and private schools will need to replace half of the current teaching force by 1992....
>
> The reform effort of recent years, although successful in weeding out some incompetent teachers, has not hit the core of the problem -- the inadequate training and poor working conditions that are hurting the classroom and keeping many top students from pursuing teaching as a career....
>
> The incentive for change is powerful. As early as 1987, 171,000 new teachers will be needed by public and private schools as instructors retire and the children of baby-boomers pass through the system. Only 142,000 new teaching graduates will be available....
>
> In all, colleges are expected to prepare 978,000 teaching graduates to meet a demand for 1.3 million over the next six years....
>
> The outlook is especially grim for minority recruitment. Black students constitute 16 percent of public-school enrollment, but the number of black teachers is expected to drop to 5 percent of the work force by 1990.[5] (p. 52)[6,7,8]

U.S. BLACK TEACHERS

% OF ALL TEACHERS

1970	1986	1990
12%	< 8%	5%

For Indiana, while the percentage of Blacks in the first grade is expected to increase from 14.2 percent currently to 17.7 percent by the year 2000, the number of blacks studying at Indiana colleges and universities in 1984-85 to become teachers has declined about two-thirds from its number 10 years ago to 200 now.[9]

> The next crisis in American public education will be a shortage of *minority* teachers who can inspire minority students in urban areas to perform as well as their peers in affluent suburbs....
>
> ... [M]inority students never will be able to perform as well as white students in the suburbs of the country unless parents get involved with their children's education. And as the minority student population grows in urban areas, ... there will be a need for more minority teachers to be role models for those students[10] (p.1)

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[3] National Council of LaRaza, Hispanics in the Labor Market: 1980-1985. Washington, D.C.: LaRaza, Dec. 1985. (See Attachment II.)

[4] Dorothy Gilliam, "A Minority Brain Drain." Black Issues in Higher Education, Feb. 15, 1986, Vol. 2 (No.15), p.20.

[5] Lucia Solorzano, "Teaching in Trouble." U.S. News & World Report, May 26, 1986, pp. 52-57. (with Dan Collins, Mary Galligan, Steve L. Hawkins & Sarah Peterson)

[6] Pat Ordovensky, "Tests Widen Fear of Black Teacher Fallout." USA Today, May 13, 1986, p.1.

[7] "Trends: Minority Teacher Ranks are Thinner", Journal & Courier, Fri., Feb. 15, 1986, p. C2.

[8] "Decline in Black Education Cited During Summit Conf." Black Issues in Higher Education, Feb. 1, 1986, p.3.

[9] Paul Wiseman, "Educators Express Concern about Lack of Black Teachers." Journal & Courier (Associated Press Release), Sat., March 22, 1986.

[10] Susan Laccetti, "Shortage of Minority Teachers Termed a 'Crisis'." Black Issues in Higher Education, April 15, 1986, Vol. 3 (no.3), pp.1-2.

> Many factors contribute to the erosion of the profession: Low pay and prestige, inadequate preparation and the opening of other job opportunities for women.
>
> Until 20 years ago, teaching benefited from a steady supply of the nation's brightest women and minorities. But as other career options opened, many of these top college students took jobs paying twice as much....
>
> The quality of students seeking teaching careers has tumbled as well. Since 1978, Scholastic Aptitude Test scores of high-school seniors planning to major in education have been at least 70 points below the national average....
>
> Almost half of all education majors have come from high-school programs such as general and vocational courses not intended to prepare students for college. To accommodate them, colleges of education have offered less challenging programs....
>
> To promote quality, 30 states require prospective teachers to pass competency tests for certification. Three states -- Arkansas, Georgia, and Texas -- have attempted to weed out incompetent teachers already on the payroll by testing them as a requirement for retaining certification, regardless of how many years they have taught.
>
> In Arkansas, 10 percent of the teachers tested have failed. In Georgia, 12 percent of the initial 8,000 have failed subject-matter tests. In Texas, the failure rate for both teachers and administrators was just under 4 percent.[5] (pp.53-54)

However, in Texas, although only 3.3 percent of teachers failed the competency test, major ethnic group differences were found. While just 1.1 percent of White teachers failed, the failure rate was 6 percent for Hispanics and 18.4 percent for Blacks. Those teachers who fail a retest will be fired. Thus, the Minority teacher shortage will be appreciably exacerbated.[11;12]

(2) Occupational Comparisons by Ethnic Group

The occupational composition within Indiana differs somewhat from that of the U.S. in general, as shown in Table 5-B2. Indiana employment is less concentrated in managerial, professional/technical, health, sales and administrative support occupations than is U.S. employment. However, it is more concentrated in operator, fabricator and laborer occupations and in precision production, craftsmen and repair occupations. Moreover, Indiana Minority workers are much less involved in farming occupations.

The proportions of ethnic group members in Indiana also vary widely with respect to the occupations in which they are employed (see Table 5-B2). For example, in 1980, 8.7 percent of all Whites were employed in an executive, administrative, or managerial occupation, compared with only 4.8 percent of all Blacks. However, 23.1 percent of all Whites were employed in the operator, fabricator and laborer occupations, whereas 30.5 percent of all Blacks were so employed. It is noteworthy that these latter occupations are the ones most requiring retraining and upgrade training as modernization and increasing high-tech industrialization occurs.

It can readily be seen that the generally high-paid occupations, which require more education, have higher proportions of Whites and Asian Americans than Blacks, Hispanics, or Native Americans.

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[11] *Julie Morris, "Texas Says 96.7% of Its Teachers Passed Test."* USA Today, Fri., May 9, 1986, p. 3A.
[12] "Teacher Group to Sue on Test," USA Today, Thrus., May 15, 1986, p.3A.

TABLE 5-B2

EMPLOYED PERSONS IN THE U.S., NORTH CENTRAL U.S., AND IND. BY ETHNIC GROUP: 1980

Occupation of Employed Persons	Geo. Area	TOTAL		WHITE		MINORITY Total[1]		MINORITY Black		MINORITY Hispanic[2]		MINORITY Asian & Pac.Isl	
		Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group
Total Employed Persons 16 Yrs and Over	U.S.	97,639,355	100.0%	84,027,375	100.0%	13,611,980	100.0%	9,334,048	100.0%	1,989,717	100.0%	1,609,070	100.0%
	N.C.	25,517,077	100.0	23,274,239	100.0	2,242,838	100.0	1,776,092	100.0	196,555	100.0	106,024	100.0
	IN	2,366,263	100.0	2,194,431	100.0	171,832	100.0	147,506	100.0	11,102	100.0	9,572	100.0
Executive, Administrative, & Managerial...	U.S.	10,133,551	10.4	9,336,266	11.1	797,285	5.9	487,432	5.2	85,953	4.3	170,093	10.6
	N.C.	2,451,420	9.6	2,322,490	10.0	128,930	5.7	99,392	5.6	7,450	3.8	16,690	9.0
	IN.	199,756	8.4	191,373	8.7	8,383	4.9	7,141	4.8	314	2.8	713	7.4
Engineers & Natural Scientists.....	U.S.	2,150,707	2.2	1,971,152	2.3	179,555	1.3	67,021	.7	11,090	.6	92,011	5.5
	N.C.	493,149	1.9	461,736	2.0	31,413	1.4	14,272	.8	1,366	.7	14,096	8.0
	IN.	41,952	1.8	39,902	1.8	2,050	1.2	1,070	.7	60	.6	810	8.5
Health Diagnosing.....	U.S.	643,716	.7	572,468	.7	71,248	.5	17,090	.2	2,777	.1	48,702	2.9
	N.C.	157,351	.6	138,604	.6	18,747	.8	4,201	.2	742	.4	13,652	7.3
	IN.	11,694	.5	10,796	.5	898	.5	170	.1	21	.2	705	7.4
Health Assessment & Treatment....	U.S.	1,695,436	1.7	1,488,276	1.8	207,160	1.5	131,601	1.4	10,023	.5	58,458	3.5
	N.C.	459,848	1.8	420,819	1.8	39,029	1.8	25,464	1.4	1,207	.6	12,360	6.6
	IN.	37,795	1.6	35,476	1.6	2,319	1.3	1,947	1.3	60	.6	264	2.8
Teachers, Librarians, & Counselors.....	U.S.	4,675,632	4.8	4,121,918	4.9	553,714	4.1	424,755	4.6	30,071	1.9	66,363	3.9
	N.C.	1,205,230	4.7	1,111,952	4.8	93,278	4.2	76,180	4.3	3,054	2.0	10,069	5.4
	IN.	106,744	4.5	99,361	4.5	7,383	4.3	6,164	4.2	274	2.5	859	9.0
Health Technologists & Technicians..	U.S.	966,469	1.0	789,904	.9	176,565	1.3	132,990	1.4	10,297	.5	26,908	1.6
	N.C.	264,498	1.0	229,351	1.0	35,147	1.6	28,619	1.6	1,003	.5	4,637	2.5
	IN.	20,539	.9	18,304	.8	2,235	1.3	1,889	1.3	114	1.0	179	1.9
Other Technologists & Technicians..	U.S.	2,015,402	2.1	1,800,735	2.1	214,747	1.6	114,044	1.2	22,446	1.1	66,302	3.9
	N.C.	466,678	1.8	431,346	1.9	35,332	1.6	22,132	1.2	2,292	1.2	9,709	5.3
	IN.	39,942	1.7	37,591	1.7	2,351	1.4	1,490	1.0	111	1.0	716	7.5
Supervisors & Proprietors, Sales Occup....	U.S.	1,540,786	1.6	1,439,306	1.7	101,480	.7	52,590	.6	15,754	.8	27,060	1.6
	N.C.	373,918	1.5	359,588	1.5	14,330	.6	10,517	.6	1,117	.6	1,974	1.1
	IN.	32,475	1.4	31,512	1.4	963	.6	819	.6	16	.1	74	.8
Sales Rep.'s Commodities & Finance........	U.S.	3,070,929	3.1	2,920,828	3.5	150,101	1.1	85,706	1.0	18,477	.9	32,876	1.9
	N.C.	760,191	3.0	735,948	3.2	24,243	1.1	19,319	1.1	1,423	.7	2,527	1.4
	IN.	62,526	2.6	61,089	2.8	1,437	.8	1,231	.8	37	.3	98	1.0
Other Sales & Occup.'s incl. Cashiers.......	U.S.	5,148,442	5.3	4,638,329	5.5	510,113	3.7	325,900	3.5	79,396	4.0	81,184	4.8
	N.C.	1,333,101	5.2	1,254,290	5.4	78,811	3.5	63,995	3.6	6,511	3.3	5,736	3.1
	IN.	124,620	5.3	118,660	5.4	5,960	3.5	5,111	3.5	392	3.5	334	3.5
Admin. Support Including Clerical.......	U.S.	16,851,398	17.3	14,561,460	17.3	2,289,938	16.8	1,635,001	17.5	275,559	13.8	285,908	16.9
	N.C.	4,259,097	16.7	3,841,601	16.5	417,496	18.6	354,974	20.0	26,585	13.5	23,636	12.7
	IN.	375,268	15.9	346,141	15.8	29,127	17.0	26,208	17.8	1,601	14.4	912	9.5
Private Households.....	U.S.	589,352	.6	312,472	.4	276,880	2.0	241,717	2.6	21,804	1.1	8,998	.5
	N.C.	112,073	.4	88,272	.4	23,801	1.1	22,052	1.2	680	.4	522	.3
	IN.	9,990	.4	7,897	.4	2,093	1.2	2,071	1.4	2	.0	18	.2
Protective Service........	U.S.	1,475,315	1.5	1,253,799	1.5	221,516	1.6	176,304	1.9	21,168	1.1	12,668	.7
	N.C.	334,907	1.3	291,961	1.3	42,946	1.9	38,432	2.2	1,916	1.0	681	.4
	IN.	29,763	1.3	26,664	1.2	3,099	1.8	2,845	1.9	161	1.5	43	.4
Other Service...	U.S.	10,564,758	10.8	8,199,702	9.8	2,365,056	17.4	1,730,173	18.6	293,044	14.7	242,007	14.3
	N.C.	2,946,156	11.5	2,599,010	11.0	387,146	17.3	318,770	17.9	27,830	14.2	26,045	14.0
	IN.	267,774	11.3	235,866	10.7	31,908	18.6	28,351	19.2	1,420	12.9	1,506	15.7
Farm Operators & Managers......	U.S.	1,298,670	1.3	1,255,572	1.5	43,098	.3	25,155	.3	6,224	.3	7,754	.5
	N.C.	640,576	2.5	638,660	2.7	1,916	.1	651	.0	181	.1	318	.2
	IN.	41,571	1.8	41,474	1.9	97	.1	39	.0	19	.2	19	.2
Farm Workers & Related......	U.S.	1,334,123	1.4	1,031,420	1.2	302,703	2.2	135,740	1.5	127,024	6.4	27,156	1.6
	N.C.	323,419	1.3	312,032	1.3	11,387	.5	6,451	.4	2,858	1.5	623	.3
	IN.	23,415	1.0	22,869	1.0	546	.3	371	.3	60	.5	90	.9
Precision Crafts & Repair Occupations....	U.S.	12,594,175	12.9	11,249,214	13.4	1,344,961	9.9	834,947	8.9	282,098	14.2	141,760	8.4
	N.C.	3,212,426	12.6	3,020,677	13.0	191,749	8.5	145,053	8.2	23,214	11.8	11,305	6.1
	IN.	329,850	13.9	314,548	14.3	15,302	8.9	12,744	8.6	1,425	12.8	552	5.8
Operators, Fabricators, & Laborers.......	U.S.	17,859,343	18.3	14,356,855	17.1	3,502,488	25.7	2,491,558	26.7	637,508	32.0	239,901	14.2
	N.C.	5,045,418	19.8	4,432,219	19.0	613,199	27.3	483,023	27.2	83,040	42.2	26,007	14.0
	IN.	559,656	23.7	507,231	23.1	52,425	30.5	45,844	30.5	4,846	43.6	1,437	15.0
Handlers, Equip. Cleaners, Helpers & Laborers.	U.S.	4,384,943	4.5	3,448,747	4.1	936,196	6.9	671,416	7.2	174,759	8.8	52,326	3.1
	N.C.	1,157,403	4.5	1,016,226	4.4	141,177	6.3	109,275	6.1	21,600	11.0	4,787	2.6
	IN.	117,858	5.0	104,908	4.8	12,950	7.5	10,848	7.4	1,596	14.4	255	2.7

[1] Estimated as all Non-Whites. Native American not shown due to relatively small numbers in Indiana.

[2] Estimated as Total-Whites-Blacks-Native Americans-Asian/Pac.Islanders-Non-Spanish "Not Elsewhere Classified" i.e., Spanish people who do not identify themselves as any of the aforementioned races.

SOURCE: 1980 U.S. Census Reports.

Ethnic-group differences in occupational composition exist within each of the 22 selected high-Minority counties in Indiana, although differences also exist across counties. Within these selected counties, compared with the 70 unselected counties, workers were more heavily involved in managerial, professional/technical, health and service occupations but much less involved in precision production, craft and repair occupations or in operator, fabricator and laborer occupations (see Tables 5-B3 and 5-B4).

TABLE 5-B3

ETHNIC-GROUP REPRESENTATION IN MANAGERIAL, PROFESSIONAL/TECHNICAL & HEALTH OCCUPATIONS FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES: 1980

							MINORITY					
	TOTAL			WHITE			Total			Black		
	Mngrl[1]	Tech[2]	Health[3]	Mngrl	Tech	Health	Mngrl	Tech.	Health	Mngrl	Tech.	Health
Indiana	8.4%	3.5%	3.0%	▽ 8.7%	▽ 3.5%	2.9%	▼ 4.9%	▼ 2.6%	3.2%	4.8%	▼ 1.7%	2.7%
Marion Co.	10.2	4.3	4.1	11.2	4.7	4.3	5.5	2.3	3.1	5.5	1.7	2.8
Lake	6.6	3.1	2.9	7.5	3.6	2.8	3.8	1.6	3.3	4.0	1.5	2.9
Allen	10.5	4.6	3.6	11.0	4.7	3.7	5.1	2.9	2.9	5.2	1.5	2.5
St. Joseph	10.1	4.0	3.1	10.5	4.0	3.2	5.9	3.0	2.1	5.1	2.0	2.4
Vanderburg	8.8	3.3	3.8	9.1	3.4	3.9	3.8	1.2	2.7	3.9	1.1	2.3
Madison	6.7	3.1	2.7	6.8	3.0	2.7	5.8	3.9	2.5	5.9	3.5	1.7
LaPorte	7.7	3.3	2.6	8.0	3.4	2.7	3.5	2.8	1.8	3.7	2.7	.9
Delaware	7.7	2.8	3.4	7.9	2.9	3.3	5.5	1.8	4.3	4.9	1.7	3.9
Vigo	8.4	3.3	3.1	14.2	5.3	6.1	4.7	2.6	5.1	4.8	1.2	3.6
Elkhart	10.2	2.9	2.1	10.5	2.9	2.1	4.1	3.0	.4	4.6	1.5	.5
Grant	6.7	2.0	3.1	6.9	2.0	3.1	3.2	1.2	3.4	3.2	1.4	1.3
Howard	7.1	4.1	2.6	7.3	4.1	2.6	4.5	5.1	2.6	3.2	3.0	2.1
Clark	8.6	3.0	3.1	8.7	3.1	2.9	5.4	1.6	6.5	5.5	.8	5.4
Monroe	9.1	5.1	2.4	9.2	5.0	2.5	6.8	8.1	1.2	6.8	4.0	.7
Wayne	9.2	2.6	2.4	9.4	2.7	2.4	5.6	2.2	1.7	5.5	1.6	1.1
Tippecanoe	8.5	7.7	3.5	8.6	7.2	3.5	6.7	22.9	1.6	9.8	5.4	1.4
Floyd	9.0	3.3	2.7	9.3	3.3	2.7	3.6	2.0	4.2	2.5	.8	4.0
Porter	7.4	4.0	3.0	7.5	4.0	2.9	2.7	5.8	11.2	NA	NA	NA
Miami	6.9	2.4	2.0	7.0	2.5	1.8	2.9	1.6	6.6	4.3	-	3.8
Bartholomew	10.7	5.9	2.7	10.8	5.7	2.7	5.6	14.0	3.2	5.4	10.2	4.8
Johnson	10.8	4.2	2.7	10.8	4.2	2.6	8.3	1.4	10.2	3.1	-	18.6
Hamilton	15.4	4.2	3.9	15.5	4.1	4.0	9.0	10.2	1.2	NA	NA	NA
TOTAL												
Sel 22 Co's.	9.1	3.9	3.3	9.5	4.0	3.3	4.9	2.5	3.2	NA	NA	NA
Unsel.70 Co.	7.2	2.6	2.3	7.2	2.6	2.3	5.5	3.3	3.1	NA	NA	NA

[1] *Executive, Administrative, and Managerial Occupations.*

[2] *Natural Science, Engineering, Technologist and Technician (Non-Health) Occupations.*

[3] *Health Diagnosing, Assessment & Treatment, and Technician Occupations.*

Source: *1980 U.S. Census Reports.*

TABLE 5-B4

ETHNIC-GROUP REPRESENTATION IN SERVICE, PRECISION & REPAIR, AND OPERATOR & LABORER OCCUPATIONS FOR INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES: 1980

							MINORITY					
	TOTAL			WHITE			Total			Black		
	Serv. 1/	Prcsn 2/	Oprtr 3/	Serv.	Prcsn ▽	Oprtr	Serv. ▼	Prcsn	Oprtr ▼	Serv.	Prcsn	Oprtr
Indiana	13.0%	13.9%	23.7%	12.3%	14.3%	23.1%	21.6%	8.9%	30.5%	22.6%	8.6%	30.5%
Marion Co.	13.5	10.8	18.4	11.1	11.5	17.1	24.2	7.6	24.5	24.7	7.5	24.9
Lake	13.5	17.0	26.0	12.2	19.0	22.5	17.4	10.6	37.0	18.1	10.3	36.1
Allen	13.1	12.8	19.0	12.1	13.1	17.9	24.3	8.2	31.2	25.2	7.9	32.0
St. Joseph	13.9	12.7	19.8	12.9	13.1	18.9	25.1	8.1	29.7	24.4	8.0	29.9
Vanderburg	14.8	13.5	22.0	13.9	13.8	21.5	29.5	9.7	29.5	30.4	9.7	29.0
Madison	13.8	15.3	28.3	13.3	15.6	27.8	21.3	10.0	37.2	21.7	10.1	39.1
LaPorte	13.0	14.8	26.3	12.3	15.3	25.2	21.3	9.3	40.6	22.1	7.7	40.9
Delaware	14.8	11.7	22.2	14.1	12.1	21.8	26.3	4.3	29.1	28.5	4.3	30.3
Vigo	15.3	12.2	20.7	14.9	12.4	20.2	22.0	7.7	30.0	21.6	8.5	34.2
Elkhart	10.6	14.3	27.2	10.3	14.3	26.5	16.4	12.9	43.5	17.7	12.0	41.5
Grant	15.1	13.3	28.5	14.9	13.6	27.4	17.1	8.8	46.1	16.9	8.7	48.0
Howard	12.9	15.3	27.7	12.8	15.5	27.1	15.8	11.8	38.4	15.1	11.4	43.3
Clark	12.2	14.2	24.0	11.9	14.6	23.8	18.0	7.7	27.6	17.6	8.0	28.8
Monroe	15.6	9.5	13.9	15.4	9.7	14.1	20.9	3.3	9.5	24.9	2.5	11.8
Wayne	14.0	12.3	24.5	13.9	12.4	24.3	17.2	11.5	29.3	18.5	10.7	29.4
Tippecanoe	16.2	10.3	14.6	16.1	10.5	14.8	18.6	5.1	10.7	22.1	8.1	15.0
Floyd	12.3	14.4	23.3	11.6	14.6	23.3	30.1	10.2	25.0	31.3	11.4	23.5
Porter	11.8	19.9	20.2	11.8	19.9	20.1	16.0	18.0	22.7	NA	NA	NA
Miami	12.9	14.2	31.1	12.7	14.2	31.0	23.4	15.2	33.6	14.1	15.8	45.7
Bartholomew	12.0	13.5	22.6	12.1	13.6	22.3	7.4	11.0	37.6	8.1	11.5	40.3
Johnson	11.4	14.1	20.4	11.3	14.2	20.5	23.3	10.8	12.7	16.1	-	19.9
Hamilton	10.3	11.6	14.8	10.2	11.7	14.8	26.9	3.1	21.6	NA	NA	NA
TOTAL												
Sel 22 Co's.	13.4	13.3	21.6	12.5	13.8	20.5	21.7	8.8	30.4	NA	NA	NA
Unsel.70 Co.	12.1	15.2	27.9	12.0	15.3	27.8	19.7	10.8	34.6	NA	NA	NA

1/ *Private Household, Protective, and Other Service Occupations.*

2/ *Precision Production, Craft, and Repair Occupations.*

3/ *Operators, Fabricators, and Laborers.*

Source: 1980 U.S. Census Reports.

(3) Changing Occupational Structure in Indiana

It is also important to observe changes over time in occupational structure. As shown in Table 5-B5, Indiana's occupational structure changed between the recession of 1982 and recovery in 1984. Contrary to a general employment increase, employment in clerical, operative, managerial, non-farm labor and service occupations decreased. Moreover, contrary to a general decline in unemployment rates, rates increased within sales and professional/technological occupations. It can also be observed in Table 5-B5 that higher unemployment rates are typically associated with the occupations that require less formal educational training.

TABLE 5-B5

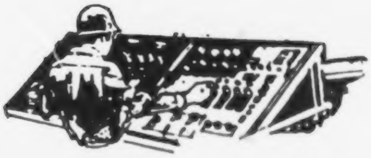
EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF INDIANA'S EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE BY OCCUPATION: 1982 & 1984 ANNUAL REPORT

(NUMBERS IN THOUSANDS)

OCCUPATION	Civilian Labor Force		Employment		Unemployment			
					Number		Rate	
	1982	1984	1982	1984	1982	1984	1982	1984
Total	2564	2601	2284	2400	280	201	10.9%	7.7%
Exec. & Mngrl	228	209	219	203	9	6	3.7	2.8
Prof. & Tech.	316	336	309	328	7	8	2.1	2.4
Sales	149	308	141	289	8	19	5.7	6.2
Clerical	418	347	387	331	31	17	7.4	4.8
Craft/Kindred	347	349	312	320	35	29	10.0	8.3
Operatives (Exc. Transp.)	382	334	294	299	87	36	22.9	10.7
Transportation	118	118	100	106	18	12	15.4	9.8
Non-Farm Laborers	154	139	117	117	36	22	23.6	15.6
Service	387	371	344	331	43	40	11.0	10.7
Farm, Forestry	66	84	60	76	6	7	9.3	8.6

Source: *Indiana Employment Security Division, Labor Market Information & Statistical Services, Indianapolis, IN.*

C. Industry Employment Comparisons



(1) The Changing Industrial Labor Force

Through the remainder of this century, robotics is expected to exert an increasing effect upon the industrial workplace in the U.S., according to a recent panel study report by the University of Michigan and the Society of Manufacturing Engineers.[1]

> - Throughout industry, the overall displacement rate of workers by robots is forecast to reach 4.3% by 1995. In some industries as many as 20% of the current work force may be displaced by robots, but within this group of affected workers, just 5-6% will actually be disemployed.
> - Nearly 90% of displaced workers will remain with their current employers through lateral transfer, retraining, or promotion. Among the remainder, half will take early retirement and half will be terminated. [However,]...
> - According to forecast estimates, 10% of those disemployed by technological change will find new jobs in 2 months or less, 37% within 6 months, and 73% within a year. Some 7% (or about 1,000 people per year through 1990) will be unable to find alternative employment due to lack of marketable skills.
> - Occupations most affected by robot installations are expected to include production painters (20% displacement), welders and flamecutters (20%), machinists and machinery operators (13%), and assembly workers (10%). Line supervisory personnel are projected to decline by 3%. [(p.10)]
> - The U.S. manufacture of robots is expected to create a total of more than 44,500 jobs by 1995. [(p.9)]
> - Increasing automation of production is forecast to create a need for a more highly trained labor force; entry level jobs "with no training or experience necessary" will become increasingly rare.[(p.10)] ... The relatively standardized, routine occupations requiring little formal training or skills are exactly the jobs that will find the most robots filling them. Workers previously performing these tasks will be left with two basic options: either to take even more mindless (and lower-paying) jobs that are not economically feasible to automate, or to move up to higher-skill positions. Thus, as has been true in every technological revolution, the need for more education for workers is paramount....
>
> Where will these better-trained workers come from? There are currently three main sources: young men and women newly entering the labor force, present workers already possessing the requisite skills, and retrained workers. In 1985, nearly three of every five persons handling robots will be a retrained worker...; only one-quarter of these will be graduates of a robotics program; the remaining 17% will come from other sources. Over time, however, the role of retrained workers will diminish, as present workers approach retirement and more institutions establish robotics curricula. By 1995, only one-third of robotics personnel will be retrained workers, while half will be graduates of institutional programs.[1] (pp. 77,79-80; underline added)

A shorter life cycle for job skills is occurring due to rapid advance and application of technology. This requires the need for new workers to be educated for a wider span of changing options, and necessitates current workers to be retrained or upgraded throughout their working careers.

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[1] Donald N. Smith & Peter Heytler, Jr. Industrial Robots: Forecast and Trends (Second Edition Delphi Study). Dearborn, MI: Society of Manufacturing Engineers, 1985.

These changes are having and will continue to have a major impact upon the status of the Black and Hispanic workforces in particular. This is the case because of Blacks' and Hispanics' (1) overrepresentation in those occupations being most negatively affected by automation and robotics, (2) lower education and acquired-skill levels, and (3) financial inability to obtain the necessary education or skills training to get and stay in step with the changing technological workplace. Accordingly, it is critical for workers to have a fundamentally sound educational base, upon which necessary training or retraining can build. Time and cost to keep a workforce current will be of ever growing importance to employers.

According to a recent report from the Office of Technology Assessment, Blacks and "displaced homemakers" (i.e., homemakers forced into the labor force because of divorce, widowhood, disability or long-term spousal unemployment) have been most adversely affected by the decline and technological changes in domestic manufacturing.[2,3] Manufacturing now accounts for only 20 percent of U.S. jobs, but almost half of the layoffs between 1979 and 1984 have occurred there, particularly among skilled and semi-skilled blue-collar workers. During this period, 11.5 million "displaced" workers lost their jobs because of automation, plant shutdowns and rising imports. Only 60 percent found new jobs during this period -- and only 42 percent of Blacks who had held their previous jobs for at least three years.

The disappearing, well-paid factory-floor jobs of the past are being supplanted by automation, and their labor-force share is being transferred to lower-paying service jobs. Between 1970 and 1984, 94 percent of the 23.3 million new nonagricultural workers were in service-producing sectors and only 1 percent in manufacturing. Even since the beginning of the current business expansion in December 1982, almost all the 10 million new jobs have been in the service-producing sector.[3] Even in May 1986, of 150,000 new jobs, service industries accounted for 100,000 -- while manufacturing lost 40,000 jobs (115,000 during the previous year).[4] Since the post-recession peak in August 1984, approximately 300,000 factory jobs have been lost.

> "For displaced workers who are often unable to move into the more desirable jobs in service sectors without substantial education or retraining, moving to the service sector will mean loss of income and status".[3] (pp. 1,11)

However, American industries will continue to need a highly-skilled work force. This will require job training programs "'to reach many more displaced workers, and emphasize training, particularly skills training, more strongly'"[3] (p.1) It therefore appears that jobs being created provide income and benefits which are now more related to the extent and relevance of workers' acquired education than was the case in the past.

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[2] Matt Yancey, "Training Programs May Not Help Workers Adapt, Study Says." Associated Press Release, Feb. 6, 1986.

[3] Kenneth B. Noble, "Study Finds 60% of 11 Million Who Lost Jobs Got New Ones." The New York Times, Fri. Feb. 7, 1986, pp. 1,11.

[4] Carl T. Hall, "Oil Patch, Blue-Collar Jobs Vanish." USA Today, Mon. June 9, 1986, p. 4B.

(2) Industry Employment: Ethnic-Group Comparisons

The industrial employment of Indiana's workforce differed substantially from that of the overall U.S. workforce in 1980 (see Table 5-C1). Indiana's workforce was more heavily involved in durable-goods manufacturing (24%) than was the U.S. workforce in general (14%). In contrast, Indiana's workforce was less heavily involved in service (25% vs. 29% in U.S. in general, especially business services), in public administration, in non-durable-goods manufacturing, in finance/insurance/real estate, and in construction. Special geographical differences also existed for Minority groups. Although no overall Indiana-U.S. difference existed for agriculture, forestry and fishing, Indiana Minorities were much less involved in agricultural industries than were U.S. Minorities in general (0.2% vs. 2.6%). This difference was especially marked for Hispanics (1% vs. 7%).

Because of Indiana's past concentration of nonagricultural labor in heavy industries, the changing industrial employment composition is especially critical as Indiana proceeds through reorientation. Ethnic-group workers differ not only in terms of occupations but also in terms of industry of employment. For example in 1980, while 3.1 percent of all Whites worked in Agricultural Industries, only .7 percent of Hispanics and .1 percent Blacks worked there. Conversely, Blacks were more highly represented than Whites in manufacturing (especially durable goods), services and public administration. Hispanics were more highly represented than Whites and Blacks in manufacturing but less in services.

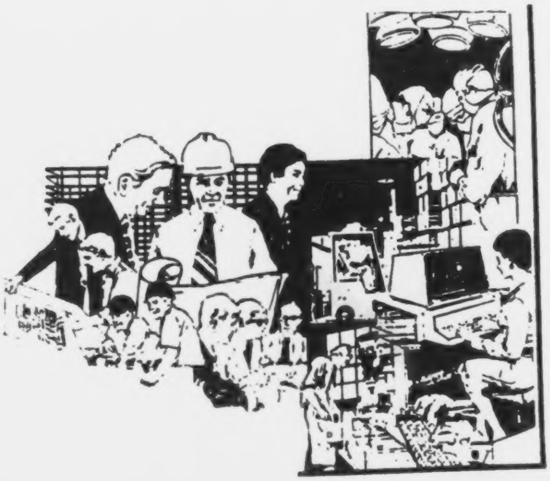

TABLE 5-C1

INDUSTRY OF EMPLOYED PERSONS BY ETHNIC GROUP FOR THE UNITED STATES AND **INDIANA**: 1980

Industry of Employed Persons	Geo. Area	Total		White		Minority									
						Total[1]		Black ◀		Hispanic[2]		Native Amer.		Asian & Pac.Isl.	
		Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group	Number	% Group
Total Employed Persons 16 yrs. and Over	U.S.	97,639,355	100.0%	84,027,375	100.0%	13,611,980	100.0%	9,334,048	100.0%	1,989,717	100.0%	507,614	100.0%	1,689,070	100.0%
	IN	2,366,263	100.0	2,194,431	100.0	171,832	100.0	147,506	100.0	11,102	100.0	3,652	100.0	9,572	100.0
Agriculture, Forestry & Fishing	U.S.	2,913,589	3.0	2,554,976	3.0	358,613	2.6	161,065	1.7	139,849	7.0	17,839	3.5	37,789	2.2
	IN	69,136	2.9	68,716	3.1	420	.2	214	.1	81	.7	41	1.1	78	.8
Mining	U.S.	1,028,178	1.1	948,911	1.1	79,267	.6	42,029	.5	20,779	1.0	11,133	2.2	4,718	.3
	IN	11,598	.5	11,321	.5	277	.2	228	.2	0	.0	30	.8	19	.2
Construction	U.S.	5,739,598	5.9	5,105,836	6.1	633,762	4.7	403,992	4.3	131,907	6.6	42,592	8.4	50,759	3.0
	IN	119,249	5.0	114,638	5.2	4,611	2.7	3,853	2.6	416	3.7	230	6.3	98	1.0
Manufacturing (Total)	U.S.	21,914,754	22.4	18,705,053	22.3	3,209,701	23.6	2,163,603	23.2	583,359	29.3	97,913	19.3	345,182	20.4
	IN	731,800	30.9	672,069	30.6	59,731	34.8	50,416	34.2	5,438	49.0	1,179	32.3	2,573	26.9
Non-Durable Goods	U.S.	8,435,543	8.6	7,063,668	8.4	1,371,874	10.1	940,224	10.1	245,059	12.3	35,354	7.0	144,126	8.5
	IN	171,978	7.3	162,069	7.4	9,909	5.8	8,304	5.6	620	5.6	221	6.1	747	7.8
Durable Goods	U.S.	13,479,211	13.8	11,641,385	13.9	1,837,826	13.5	1,223,379	13.1	338,300	17.0	62,559	12.3	201,056	11.9
	IN	559,822	23.7	510,000	23.2	49,822	29.0	42,112	28.5 ◀	4,818	43.4	958	26.2	1,826	19.1
Transportation	U.S.	4,273,961	4.4	3,586,858	4.3	687,103	5.0	525,564	5.6	74,255	3.7	20,792	4.1	62,865	3.7
	IN	91,744	3.9	84,677	3.9	7,097	4.1	6,419	4.4	397	3.6	193	5.3	77	.8
Communications	U.S.	1,440,868	1.5	1,240,742	1.5	200,126	1.5	151,676	1.6	22,211	1.1	6,058	1.2	19,076	1.1
	IN	29,145	1.2	26,745	1.2	2,400	1.4	2,178	1.5	88	.8	56	1.5	75	.8
Utilities	U.S.	1,372,626	1.4	1,176,104	1.4	196,522	1.4	150,043	1.6	22,706	1.1	8,633	1.7	14,054	.8
	IN	33,658	1.4	31,419	1.4	2,239	1.3	2,018	1.4	105	.9	65	1.8	48	.5
Wholesale Trade	U.S.	4,217,232	4.3	3,796,001	4.5	421,231	3.1	259,997	2.8	79,707	4.0	14,273	2.8	64,230	3.8
	IN	93,926	4.0	90,474	4.1	3,452	2.0	2,893	2.0	224	2.0	136	3.7	177	1.8
Retail Trade	U.S.	15,716,694	16.1	13,992,046	16.7	1,724,648	12.7	1,035,629	11.1	287,678	14.5	65,382	12.9	320,586	19.0
	IN	386,804	16.3	367,100	16.7	19,704	11.5	16,068	10.9	1,309	11.8	583	16.0	1,642	17.2
Finance, Insur., & Real Estate	U.S.	5,898,059	6.0	5,231,499	6.2	666,560	4.9	449,853	4.8	80,934	4.1	17,129	3.4	113,238	6.7
	IN	119,281	5.0	112,187	5.1	7,094	4.1	6,327	4.3	316	2.8	121	3.3	315	3.3
Services (Total)	U.S.	27,976,330	28.7	23,486,048	28.0	4,490,282	33.0	3,288,096	35.2	461,756	23.2	146,592	28.9	564,016	33.4
	IN	597,004	25.2	543,003	24.7	54,001	31.4	46,942	31.8 ◀	1,747	15.7	883	24.2	4,200	43.9
Business Serv.	U.S	2,724,596	2.8	2,359,624	2.8	364,972	2.7	250,783	2.7	46,989	2.4	13,312	2.6	51,115	3.0
	IN	39,606	1.7	36,503	1.7	3,103	1.8	2,801	1.9	87	.8	67	1.8	142	1.5
Hospital Serv.	U.S.	4,424,547	4.5	3,433,983	4.1	990,564	7.3	753,842	8.1	70,065	3.5	22,824	4.5	138,694	8.2
	IN	97,800	4.1	83,869	3.8	13,931	8.1	12,416	8.4 ◀	435	3.9	167	4.6	866	9.0
Other Health Services	U.S.	2,825,918	2.9	2,436,647	2.9	389,271	2.9	279,703	3.0	34,841	1.8	13,817	2.7	58,298	3.5
	IN	68,162	2.9	62,579	2.9	5,583	3.2	4,634	3.1	136	1.2	88	2.4	715	7.5
Educational Services	U.S.	8,377,213	8.6	7,169,995	8.5	1,207,218	8.9	912,067	9.8	111,191	5.6	46,308	9.1	129,965	7.7
	IN	201,640	8.5	185,864	8.5	15,776	9.2	13,145	8.9	568	5.1	197	5.4	1,769	18.5
Social, Religious & Membership Ser.	U.S.	2,115,878	2.2	1,754,294	2.1	361,584	2.7	280,147	3.0	37,390	1.9	13,850	2.7	28,074	1.7
	IN	49,448	2.1	44,237	2.0	5,211	3.0	4,724	3.2	186	1.7	103	2.8	197	2.1
Public Administration	U.S.	5,147,466	5.3	4,203,301	5.0	944,165	6.9	702,501	7.5	84,576	4.3	59,278	11.7	92,557	5.5
	IN	82,888	3.5	72,082	3.3	10,806	6.3	9,950	6.7 ◀	429	3.9	135	3.7	270	2.8

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[1] *Estimated as all Non-Whites.*

[2] *Estimated as Total-Whites-Blacks-Native Americans-Asian/Pac.Islanders-Non-Spanish "Not Elsewhere Classified" i.e., Spanish people who do not identify themselves as any of the aforementioned races.*

Source: 1980 U.S. Census Reports.

The situation is especially critical for the more populated Indiana counties, not only because of their previous dependence upon heavy-industry employment, but also because of their large concentration of less-educated Minority workers. As shown in Tables 5-C2 and 5-C3, Indiana's Minorities in the selected counties were much more involved in general in durable-goods manufacturing, services and public administration than were Whites but were less involved in trade, construction and non-durable-goods manufacturing. However, in a few counties Minorities were also more involved in non-durable-goods manufacturing (LaPorte, Elkhart, Vanderburgh, Grant

TABLE 5-C2

ETHNIC-GROUP REPRESENTATION IN CONSTRUCTION AND NON-DURABLE AND DURABLE GOODS MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES IN INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES: 1980

	TOTAL % of Ethnic Group			WHITE % of Ethnic Group			MINORITY Total % of Ethnic Group			MINORITY Black % of Ethnic Group		
	Constr.1/	N-D Mfg2/	D.Mfg3/	Constr.	N-D Mfg	D.Mfg	Constr.	N-D Mfg	D.Mfg △	Constr.	N-D Mfg	D.Mfg
Indiana	5.0%	7.3%	23.7%	5.2%	7.4%	23.2%	2.7%	5.8%	29.0%	2.6%	5.6%	28.5%
Marion Co.	4.3	7.0	16.6	4.6	7.2	16.1	3.0	6.0	18.9	2.9	6.0	18.9
Lake	4.7	5.1	32.9	5.5	5.6	30.0	2.3	3.7	42.0 ◁	2.1	3.7	41.2
Allen	4.5	5.6	21.6	4.7	5.6	21.1	2.9	5.6	28.3	3.0	5.3	28.8
St. Joseph	4.5	6.9	20.9	4.5	7.1	20.3	3.8	4.6	27.7	4.0	4.4	27.9
Vanderburgh	5.7	11.2	15.1	5.8	11.2	15.1	4.1	12.0	16.7	4.1	12.1	15.9
Madison	3.9	4.3	35.4	4.0	4.3	35.1	2.8	3.3	40.4 ◁	2.9	3.2	42.7
LaPorte	5.4	8.9	28.6	5.7	8.6	28.0	1.6	13.0	37.2	1.7	12.6	35.8
Delaware	3.7	3.4	24.3	3.8	3.5	23.7	.5	1.7	33.7	2.1	10.5	12.3
Vigo	4.8	10.6	14.4	4.9	10.6	13.8	2.8	9.5	23.8	3.6	9.6	27.2
Elkhart	4.1	12.0	31.8	4.2	11.9	31.7	2.2	14.1	35.1	2.0	13.9	33.6
Grant	2.9	7.6	30.9	2.9	7.6	30.4	2.8	9.0	39.2 ◁	2.4	9.2	40.8
Howard	3.5	2.6	40.7	3.6	2.7	40.0	1.8	.7	54.0 ◁	.8	.6	58.2
Clark	5.5	10.0	17.7	5.7	10.0	17.9	1.9	9.8	13.2	2.1	10.5	12.3
Monroe	4.0	1.9	13.5	4.2	1.9	13.7	.2	1.4	10.3	.4	1.5	10.5
Wayne	4.3	3.8	29.1	4.4	3.8	28.9	2.1	4.1	34.4	2.2	4.2	34.2
Tippecanoe	3.8	7.0	11.8	3.9	7.1	11.9	1.7	6.8	7.5	2.3	8.9	11.0
Floyd	5.6	10.8	17.3	5.7	10.9	17.3	2.2	10.4	17.5	2.4	9.5	17.3
Porter	6.8	2.3	30.7	6.9	2.3	30.7	2.7	3.0	35.5	NA	NA	NA
Miami	4.0	7.7	28.3	4.0	7.8	28.1	5.2	4.7	35.7	6.5	6.5	32.6
Bartholomew	4.1	5.1	36.3	4.1	5.1	35.6	1.1	6.6	66.5 ◁	1.6	5.4	68.6
Johnson	5.7	8.6	19.6	5.7	8.6	19.6	1.7	4.2	16.9	-	-	13.7
Hamilton	5.4	8.1	16.6	5.5	8.1	16.6	2.2	7.1	16.0	NA	NA	NA
TOTALS												
Sel. 22 Cos.	4.6	6.7	23.1	4.8	6.8	22.4	2.7	5.5	29.0	NA	NA	NA
Unsel.70 Cos.	6.0	8.4	24.8	6.0	8.4	24.8	3.1	11.9	29.6	NA	NA	NA

1/ Construction
2/ Non-Durable Goods Manufacturing
3/ Durable Goods Manufacturing

Source: 1980 U.S. Census Reports

and Bartholomew) and less involved in services (Bartholomew and Hamilton). Durable-goods manufacturing differences were especially marked in Bartholomew, Howard and Lake Counties. Minority involvement was especially heavy in the service industry in Monroe and Tippecanoe Counties because of educational services.

TABLE 5-C3

ETHNIC-GROUP REPRESENTATIVE IN TRADE AND SERVICE INDUSTRIES AND PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION IN INDIANA AND SELECTED COUNTIES: 1980

	TOTAL			WHITE			MINORITY					
	% of Ethnic Group			% of Ethnic Group			Total % of Ethnic Group			Black % of Ethnic Group		
	Trade 1/	Serv. 2/	P.Adm. 3/	Trade	Serv.	P.Adm.	Trade	Serv.	P.Adm.	Trade	Serv.	P.Adm.
Indiana	20.3%	25.2%	3.5%	20.9%	24.7%	3.3%	▼ 13.5%	▼ 31.4%	6.3%	12.9%	31.8%	6.7%
Marion Co.	22.5	28.3	5.4	24.1	26.9	4.8	15.1	34.7	8.3	14.5	34.8	8.5
Lake	19.3	22.7	3.3	21.8	21.6	2.5	11.2	26.1	5.6	10.6	27.2	6.0
Allen	23.0	25.3	2.3	23.8	24.7	2.2	13.0	31.8	2.9	11.9	32.8	2.8
St. Joseph	22.8	29.0	2.9	23.5	28.3	2.8	15.3	36.6	3.6	14.0	37.2	3.7
Vanderburgh	23.1	28.8	2.9	23.5	28.4	2.9	16.0	35.2	3.9	16.0	35.7	4.2
Madison	20.0	22.9	3.6	20.3	22.6	3.5	13.1	27.3	6.1	12.4	26.2	6.7
LaPorte	18.3	21.3	3.9	19.0	21.2	3.7	9.8	23.1	6.3	9.7	23.2	7.3
Delaware	23.2	32.6	2.7	23.6	32.4	2.6	15.7	34.8	5.7	15.9	31.1	8.7
Vigo	22.2	31.1	4.0	22.9	30.7	3.8	10.2	38.9	6.4	8.9	34.1	7.4
Elkhart	18.6	20.3	1.9	19.1	20.1	1.7	8.2	25.5	5.7	6.8	27.5	6.9
Grant	17.9	28.1	2.2	18.4	28.2	2.0	11.1	27.2	4.7	11.6	26.8	4.3
Howard	19.6	20.5	3.2	19.9	20.8	2.9	14.2	14.9	7.8	11.8	13.6	7.9
Clark	21.4	23.5	6.1	21.7	23.1	5.9	16.3	31.3	8.3	15.9	31.1	8.7
Monroe	19.9	46.7	3.6	20.1	46.0	3.5	13.5	64.7	3.8	17.1	60.2	5.0
Wayne	20.8	26.1	2.5	21.3	25.8	2.4	11.2	31.0	5.0	9.7	31.8	5.6
Tippecanoe	21.4	42.3	2.5	21.6	41.7	2.4	13.6	59.8	4.5	20.0	46.7	3.5
Floyd	20.9	25.2	5.0	21.0	24.9	5.0	18.3	32.6	6.3	18.5	33.2	7.1
Porter	19.3	25.2	2.2	19.4	25.1	2.2	11.1	34.1	2.3	NA	NA	NA
Miami	17.2	20.7	4.6	17.3	20.6	4.7	15.2	24.4	3.7	15.8	19.0	1.1
Bartholomew	19.2	22.7	2.3	19.4	23.0	2.3	9.9	11.7	3.0	10.4	10.9	3.2
Johnson	20.5	23.6	3.8	20.5	23.5	3.8	23.5	31.6	10.2	13.7	37.9	19.9
Hamilton	24.6	24.5	3.2	24.5	24.5	3.1	38.3	17.9	5.9	NA	NA	NA
TOTALS												
Sel. 22 Cos.	21.2	27.0	3.6	22.2	26.5	3.3	13.4	31.6	6.4	NA	NA	NA
Unsel.70 Cos.	18.4	21.6	3.3	18.5	21.5	3.3	14.6	26.8	4.1	NA	NA	NA

1/ *Wholesale and Retail Trade.*
2/ *Service.*
3/ *Public Administration.*

Source: *1980 U.S. Census Report.*

(3) Indiana's Changing Industrial Labor Force: 1979 to Feb. 1986

As shown in Table 5-C4, Indiana's industrial employment composition has changed substantially since 1979. Although the number of ***manufacturing*** firms has increased significantly (especially in durable goods), employment in manufacturing firms has significantly decreased. This is especially critical for Minorities who, as earlier reported, have been much more heavily involved in manufacturing than are Whites.

In contrast, for ***service*** industries, both the number of firms and employment have increased significantly. It should be kept in mind, however, that both worker earnings and state revenue tend to be lower for service industries than for manufacturing industries. Minorities are also more heavily involved in services than are Whites.

For ***construction*** industries, both the number of firms and employment are lower than in 1979 but have increased since the 1982 recession. ***Mining*** employment has declined, as has the number of ***government*** firms. The number of ***transportation, communication and utilities*** firms and, since the 1982 recession, employment has increased. Finally, since the recession, the number of ***trade*** firms and employment has increased.

These changes will continue to have adverse implications upon Indiana's Minority labor force and economic well-being, at least until Minorities' educational levels and basic learning skills improve, and thus affect their communities and the State as well.

TABLE 5-C4

DISTRIBUTION OF FIRMS AND EMPLOYMENT* BY INDUSTRY WITHIN INDIANA: 1979, 1982, 1984, FEB. 1986

	Aver., 1979			Aver., 1982			1st Half, 1984			Feb., 1986	
	Number	Employment		Number	Employment		Number	Employment		Employment	
	Firms	Number	%	Firms	Number	%	Firms	Number	%	Number	%
All Industries	101,933	2,102,094	100.0%	100,325	1,913,230	100.0%	105,748	2,023,353	100.0%	(2,196,200) 1/	100.0%
Agriculture Forestry, Fishing	1,228	12,435	.6%	1,424	12,490	.7%	1,534	11,373	.6%	(12,300) 1/	.6%
Mining	511	10,187	.5%	507	9,642	.5%	545	9,012	.5%	8,800	.4%
Construction	12,302	104,537	5.0%	10,504	68,320	3.4%	10,930	70,907	3.5%	80,400	3.7%
Manufacturing	7,727	733,192	34.9%	7,888	588,893	30.8%	8,284	618,504	30.6%	598,600	27.3%
Durable Goods	5,097	564,968	26.9%	5,199	435,328	22.8%	5,468	455,944	22.5%	435,000	19.8%
Nondurable Goods	2,630	168,224	8.0%	2,689	153,565	8.0%	2,816	162,560	8.0%	163,600	7.4%
Transp., Communic., Utilities	3,874	95,806	4.6%	4,076	90,000	4.7%	4,504	106,204	5.3%	110,300	5.0%
Wholesale & Retail Trade	38,401	492,052	23.4%	36,534	443,408	23.2%	38,650	476,606	23.6%	518,100	23.6%
Finance, Ins., Real Est.	7,874	98,883	4.7%	7,858	95,546	5.0%	7,990	99,622	4.9%	107,500	4.9%
Services	26,353	473,398	22.5%	28,159	482,182	25.2%	30,030	516,050	25.5%	595,200	27.1%
Government	3,558	123,680	5.9%	3,375	122,757	5.9%	3,201	114,187	5.6%	164,900 2/	7.5%

* Includes only employment covered by the Indiana Employment Security Division.

1/ Assumes .56% representation for agriculture (same as 1984) which is unknown.
2/ Includes Postal Service and selected health services.

Source: Indiana Employment Security Division, Labor Market Information and Statistical Service.

ATTACHMENT I

EQUALITY AND EXCELLENCE:
THE EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF BLACK AMERICANS*

SUMMARY

Since the recent wave of reports on educational "excellence" has engulfed the country, numerous reform proposals have been proferred and, in some cases, initiated in states and school districts nationwide. These include changes in curriculum requirements, "standards," and policies for selecting and compensating teachers. However, the reports and the ensuing initiatives have largely ignored issues of educational equality, and analyses of the needs of various pupil populations or the effects on them of new policies have been notable largely by their absence.

This paper attempts to fill part of this void by presenting a brief assessment of the current educational status of black Americans and a discussion of recent policy trends as they affect black students. Among the many trends that emerge from this analysis, the following are most striking:

Demographic Trends

- The structure of black families has changed significantly over the past decade. Female-headed households increased from 28 percent to 41 percent of all black families between 1970 and 1982. This is partly the result of dramatically increased divorce rates and partly due to increases in the numbers of never-married mothers.
- Most black children do not live in two-parent households. In 1982, 49 percent lived with one parent, and 8 percent lived with neither parent.
- In 1982, nearly half (47.6 percent) of all black children aged 18 and under lived in households below the poverty line. This compares to only 17 percent of white children.

Income and Employment

- The proportion of blacks living in households below the poverty line remained constant at 34 percent between 1970 and 1981, but increased in absolute numbers from 8 million to 9 million persons.
- Real median income for black families decreased by 8.3 percent from 1971 to 1981, and the ratio of black to white median family income declined steadily after 1975 to 55 percent, the level it had been in 1960. Although black married couple families registered income gains, they constituted a smaller proportion of black households in 1981 than in 1971.
- Unemployment rates for black men and women in virtually all age categories have increased fairly steadily since 1965. In 1982-83, about 1 out of every 5 blacks in the labor market were unemployed, with much higher rates for teenagers and young adults.

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- Unemployment rates and labor force participation rates are strongly correlated with educational attainment for both blacks and whites. However for blacks, marked differences in employability occur only for those with a college degree.

- Although blacks have made strides since 1970 in gaining access to higher-paying and higher-status jobs, whites were still more than twice as likely as blacks to hold jobs in professional or managerial occupations in 1980. Black participation in these occupations was also concentrated in jobs at the lower end of the professional pay scale.

- In terms of labor force participation and occupational upward mobility, greater strides were made by black women than black men. The same is true for higher education degree attainment, where the number and proportion of degrees has declined for black men but increased substantially for black women.

Educational Attainment

- Although high school graduation rates have improved dramatically for black students over the past two decades, college attendance and completion rates have declined for blacks since 1975.

- Blacks are seriously underrepresented among graduate and professional school students, and black participation rates in postgraduate education have declined since the early 1970s.

- Blacks lose ground relative to non-blacks at each stage of the educational pipeline. In 1972, for example, blacks represented 12.7 percent of all 18 year olds, 10.5 percent of all 1972 high school graduates, 8.7 percent of all college freshmen, and four years later, 6.5 percent of all B.A. recipients. By 1979, blacks represented only about 4 percent of all professional and doctoral degree recipients.

Higher Education

- At the undergraduate level, 42 percent of black college students were enrolled in 2-year colleges in 1980. Persistence rates for 2-year college students are much lower than they are for students attending 4-year colleges, particularly for black students.

- Financial aid has a great affect on college retention rates, particularly for black students, who are nearly twice as likely to stay in 4-year colleges with aid than without. The importance of financial aid for black students is apparent, considering that in 1981, 48 percent of black college-bound seniors came from families with incomes under $12,000, as compared to only 10 percent of their white counterparts.

- On the brighter side, over the past decade, blacks have become more similar to whites (and women more similar to men) in the fields of study in which they received higher education degrees. Increasing proportions of blacks and women are represented in disciplines like business and management and in math- and science-related fields. However, black degrees are still concentrated in education, humanities, and the social sciences where salaries are lowest and unemployment rates highest.

- Although predominantly black colleges enrolled only 27 percent of black college students in 1980 (as compared to more than 50 percent prior to 1970) and accounted for only 34 percent of all black undergraduate degrees in 1980-81, they granted more than 40 percent of all black degrees in agriculture, computer sciences, biology, math, physical sciences, and social sciences.

- In our increasingly technological society, choice of fields is an important dimension of equality. With respect to math- and science-related degrees, blacks lose "field" ground just as they lose attainment ground at several points in the educational pipeline. At the B.A. level, the percent choosing quantitative fields is 60 percent of the national average; at the M.A. level, 40 percent; and at the Ph.D. level, 33 percent. These choices are affected by two factors: parental education and early educational preparation and achievement.

Elementary and Secondary Education

- The educational performance of black students in elementary and secondary schools, as measured by standardized achievement test scores, rose in many areas over the decade of the 1970s, but it remained lower than that of non-blacks by 1980.

- The strongest gains in mathematics and reading test scores were registered by young black students, particularly those from urban, disadvantaged communities and from the southeastern states.

- However, gains in mathematics and science were far less substantial than for reading, and black 17-year olds showed stable or declining scores on achievement measures in reading, mathematics, and science.

- Black students of all ages performed better in the area of mathematical knowledge (factual recall) than in the area of mathematical skills (performing computations and manipulations), and least well in the area of mathematical applications (the ability to solve problems and use mathematical reasoning).

- Disappointing trends in performance for older students, both black and white, and on higher order cognitive tasks in reading, writing, mathematics, and science reflect disturbing changes in educational methods over the last decade. Between 1972 and 1980, use of teaching methods that might encourage the development of higher order thinking abilities--project or laboratory work, writing tasks, and student-centered discussion--declined in public high schools.

Curriculum Equality

A number of indicators suggest that black students, on average, receive educational programs and offerings that differ in kind and content from those of white students. These differences in the substance of education have grave implications for educational achievement and later education and career options. For example:

- Blacks are disproportionately more likely to be enrolled in special education programs and less likely to be enrolled in programs for the gifted and talented than are whites. However, these proportions vary widely across school districts, suggesting that administrative policies and practices affect placement as much as do student characteristics.

- At the high school level, blacks are underrepresented in academic programs and are overrepresented in vocational education programs where they receive less educational preparation in areas like English, mathematics, and science, and they lose ground in terms of educational achievement.

- Furthermore, black students in vocational education programs are enrolled earlier and more extensively in programs training specially for low-status occupations than are white students. Typically, these assignments are made by school personnel rather than by election of students or their parents.

- Among college-bound seniors in 1981, most blacks had taken fewer years of coursework in mathematics, physical sciences, and social studies than their white counterparts. Even where years of coursework are similar, the content of courses varies for black and white students. For example, black seniors in 1980 were as likely as whites to have taken at least three years of math, but they were much less likely to have taken algebra, geometry, trigonometry, or calculus. Thus, their years of coursework must have been concentrated in areas like general math or business math.

- Students in low-income and predominantly minority schools have less access to microcomputers and to teachers trained in the uses of computers. Furthermore, students in predominantly minority schools or classrooms are much more likely to use computers for drill-and-practice rather than programming or concept development than students in other schools.

Overall, the evidence suggests that black students are exposed to less challenging educational program offerings which are less likely to enhance the development of higher order cognitive skills and abilities than are white students.

POLICY TRENDS

Several recent policy trends have particularly important implications for black students' schooling experiences. This paper examines trends in three areas: funding for education; graduation and other requirements for students; and teaching force changes.

Financing Education

Since 1975, state, local, and federal funding for public elementary and secondary education has been made more tenuous by several factors: (1) the property tax revolt of the late 1970s, which impaired the ability of many states and school districts to raise revenues; (2) economic recession; and (3) federal aid cuts under the Reagan Administration. Although some states and school districts are beginning to regain a firmer footing, a full recovery in the education sector is by no means complete.

In particular, the reductions in federal aid for compensatory education at the elementary and secondary levels, and in student financial assistance for higher education, have negatively affected educational opportunities for black students. Meanwhile, apparently growing support for the "privatization" of education (through tuition tax credits or vouchers) may disproportionately benefit already advantaged students while leaving public education support still tenuous.

Student Requirements

Standards for students have changed through the institution of minimum competency testing by many states and localities, and are changing further with newly increased course requirements for graduation in many places. While it is difficult to oppose "standards," the effects of these policies must be carefully considered.

Minimum competency tests may improve educational quality by increasing attention to the so-called "basics" of education. There is some evidence, however, that the skills represented on minimum competency tests are not "enabling" skills that lead to higher order thinking abilities, and that instructional programs built around competency tests emphasize rote learning at the expense of higher order cognitive skills; use test-oriented activities like lectures and multiple-choice worksheets and test rather than performance-oriented activities like discussions, writing, and projects involving problem-solving; and de-emphasize nontested subjects like science, social studies, and the arts. Furthermore, students who are denied promotion as a result of these programs make less progress in educational achievement than similar students who are not retained in grade.

The potential benefits and detriments of minimum competency tests and similar approaches to educational improvement must be carefully weighed in the context of what they actually measure and what types of teaching they in fact encourage.

Increased requirements for graduation--the so-called "new basics"-- also hold promise for improving the content of eductional programs and for reducing existing differences in students' schooling experiences. However, uniform educational requirements, if administered without flexibility and sensitivity, may exacerbate dropout rates, raising standards for some while excluding others from school altogether. Equally important is the fact that there is not now a sufficient number of qualified teachers to teach the new basics (particularly advanced math and science courses), and teacher supply looks still more grim for the foreseeable future. Inequalities in available teacher resources will also affect the quality of minority students' educational programs, whether or not they are conducted under the rubric of the new basics.

Teaching Force Trends

Emerging teacher shortages have led to projections that by 1988 only 70 to 80 percent of the demand for new teachers will be satisfied. Furthermore, new entrants to the profession are less academically able than was the case in the past when education benefited from a captive labor force of academically talented women and minorities who were barred from other professional occupations. Now these students are choosing other more lucrative professions. Low salaries and low occupational prestige are major reasons for the inability of teaching to recruit new entrants. Unprofessional working conditions further contribute to high current levels of teacher dissatisfaction and attrition.

The result for students where qualified teachers are not available is that courses are taught by teachers inadequately prepared in the subject area, class sizes are increased, course content is "watered down," or the courses are simply not offered.

Two popular policy responses to the problem of attracting and retaining qualified teachers are teacher competency testing of preservice teacher candidates and merit pay for inservice teachers. By 1983, 30 states had mandated competency tests for teacher certification and 12 additional states were considering such a move. Despite the fact that research has found no consistent relationship between scores on such tests and later teaching performance, the tests are viewed as a means for preventing incompetent teachers from entering the profession. The tests are disproportionately eliminating minority candidates from teaching; failure rates for blacks and other minorities are 2 to 10 times higher than those of white applicants in the states using the tests.

Whether these outcomes are the result of inferior educational opportunities available to minority teaching candidates or to cultural bias in the tests themselves, the differential pass rates are a source of social concern. Critics argue that if the tests do not predict actual ability to teach, they are exacerbating teacher shortages and eliminating minority teachers from the profession at great expense to minority children and to the society at large, without commensurate gain in educational quality. Even if the tests do in some way sort out less qualified teacher candidates, they do not address the overall problem of improving the attractiveness of teaching to increase the pool of academically talented recruits.

Merit pay for inservice teachers also fails to address the roots of the teaching force problem. Even if the failures of past merit pay plans are overcome, they will do little to enhance recruitment or retention unless major changes in teachers' salaries and working conditions are made. Minority children are most at risk from the effects of these teaching force trends, for they attend school in those areas of the country and school districts where salaries and working conditions for teachers are least conductive to the attraction and retention of high quality teachers.

CONCLUSIONS

Black students have made great strides since 1960 in pursuing and profiting from enhanced educational opportunities. Levels of educational attainment have improved, and disparities in fields of study and later career options have begun to narrow. Some erosion in these gains has occurred since 1975, however, and current policy trends threaten to reverse the movement toward equality.

"Excellence" for black students will not become a reality unless and until they receive enriched curricular opportunities in elementary and secondary schools, sufficient financial assistance to pursue higher education opportunities, and instruction from well-qualified teachers. Attainment of these goals means that the excellence agenda for black students cannot ignore the adequate and equal financing of public education, the appropriateness of courses and achievement measures which are intended to enforce higher standards, or the policies which will ultimately determine who will teach in our schools.

Of paramount importance is the content and substance of education received by black students. Although finances and broad program supports cannot be ignored, in the final analysis it is the interaction that goes on between students and teachers in individual schools and classrooms that defines educational quality and equality. Subtle and not-so-subtle differences in curriculum track, in course content, and in teaching methods, in the qualifications and commitment of school personnel, in the opportunities for innovation and enrichment at the school site, ultimately determine which students will receive a true education and which will merely be trained to assume a permanent role in the nation's underclasses.

These are not issues which are currently at the forefront of the nation's attention. Educators and policymakers who are concerned about equality, as well as fundamental excellence, must put them there.

ATTACHMENT II

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF
LA RAZA
OFFICE OF RESEARCH
ADVOCACY AND LEGISLATION

Perspectivas
Públicas
ISSUE BRIEF

December 1985

Title: HISPANICS IN THE LABOR MARKET: 1980-1985

Contact Marta M. Escutia, (202) 628-9600

HISPANICS IN THE LABOR MARKET: 1980-1985

(Selected Excerpts)

I. INTRODUCTION

Hispanic Americans are the nation's youngest and fastest-growing major population group. Their youth and relatively low levels of education pose especially intractable problems, suggesting that hard-core Hispanic unemployment and poverty will endure into the future.

The 1980 Census estimated the Hispanic population in the United States at 14.6 million, or 6.4% of the total U.S. population. The Hispanic community had a birth rate in 1980 of 106.5 births per 1,000 women aged 18-44, compared to the White rate of 68.5 and the Black rate of 84.0. This high fertility rate, which is well above "replacement" level, guarantees larger cohorts of children for years to come. These high birth rates, which stem partly from a higher proportion of Hispanic women of child-bearing age, reflect the low median age of Hispanics, which is 23.2 years as compared to 31.7 years for Whites, and 24.9 years for Blacks.

Hispanics are projected to account for at least 8% of the labor force by 1995. The Hispanic community is an increasing pool of potentially productive workers. However, the progress of Hispanics in the labor market is hindered by their low levels of education, employment, and earnings. Hispanics are the least-educated and the lowest-paid of all groups in the labor market. Hispanic workers are "distressed" workers -- a phrase coined by Professor Daniel Saks of Vanderbilt University to identify large segments in the labor force who do poorly in the labor market despite good economic times.[1] As "distressed" workers, Hispanics are extremely vulnerable to shifts in the economy and to restrictive federal policies in education and employment and training.

National Office - Twenty F St. N.W., 2nd Floor, Washington, D.C. 20001, (202) 628-9600. Raul Yzaguirre, President

LA RAZA: The Hispanic People of the New World

II. LABOR MARKET STATUS

A. Education

Data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics reveal that Hispanics are the least-educated major population group in the country, and that the general Hispanic population has lower educational attainment than Hispanics in the civilian labor force: ... Hispanics appear to be more undereducated when compared to Blacks and Whites, as shown in the following data from the March 1981 Current Population Survey:

MEDIAN SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED, 1981
(Persons 25 years old and over)

White Males	12.6 years	Hispanic Males	11.0 years
White Females	12.5 years	Hispanic Females	10.5 years
Black Males	12.1 years		
Black Females	12.1 years		

... A disproportionately high percentage of Hispanic youth leave high school without a diploma. Data from a 1979 Census Bureau study showed that 35% of Hispanics 18-21 years old had dropped out of high school as compared with 25% of Blacks and 15% of Whites. In 1983, only 50.3% of Hispanic 18-19 year olds had graduated from high school as compared to 75.6% of Whites and 59.1% of Blacks...

Education is the single most important human capital characteristic in terms of its direct correlation on future earnings. A study using data from the 1976 Survey of Income and Education and the 1970 census found that Hispanics have lower returns to education than Whites. For example, White men earned 6.1% more for each additional grade of school completed, whereas Mexican men earned 5.4% higher wages per school grade completed, Puerto Rican men earned 3.6%, Cuban men earned 3.5%, and Black men earned 4.9%.[2/] ...

B. Labor Force Participation

... Hispanic men have higher labor force participation rates than White or Black men. Some economists believe that the higher overall labor force participation rate reflects the fact that the current Hispanic male population in the United States is, on average, younger than the non-Hispanic male population (in 1983, 49.7% of the adult Hispanic men were between the ages of 20 and 34 as compared to 39.1% for all adult men) and young adult men traditionally have higher labor force participation rates than older men.[4/] Hispanic women, like all women, have lower labor force participation rates than men... Hispanic women still have somewhat lower labor force participation rates than other women.

C. Occupational Distribution

In 1984, Hispanic workers were especially concentrated in the following occupations:

1. Technical, sales, and administrative support, where 25.8% of Hispanics in the civilian labor force are employed, compared to 30.9% of the total labor force. Over half of Hispanics (60%) employed in this category are concentrated in administrative support, including clerical work.

2. Operators, fabricators, and laborers, where 25.0% of Hispanics in the labor force are employed, compared to 16.0% of the total labor force. Over half of Hispanics (55%) employed in this category are machine operators, assemblers, and inspectors; one-fourth (27%) are handlers, equipment cleaners, and helpers.

3. Service occupations, where 17.6% of Hispanics in the labor force are employed, compared to 13.5% of the total labor force. Excluding private household and protective service occupations, over four-fifths of Hispanics (83%) employed in this category are concentrated in jobs such as cooks, dishwashers, cleaning service workers, and food counter workers....

Hispanics are underrepresented in the managerial and professional occupations, where only 11.8% of Hispanic workers are employed, compared to 14.0% of Black workers, and 24.0% of White workers. On the other hand, Hispanics are overrepresented in the agriculture industry, where 5.7% of Hispanics are employed, compared to 2.7% of Black workers, and 3.5% of White workers.

D. Earnings

The occupational concentration of Hispanics is within those jobs which require a low level of skills and are low paid....

Hispanic men and women earn the lowest wages in the labor market....

Professor Cordelia Reimers in her study, "A Comparative Analysis of the Wages of Hispanics, Blacks, and non-Hispanic Whites," found that the average wages offered to minority men are at least 15% below those offered to White men.[5] The Reimers study, based on data from the 1976 Survey of Income and Education and the 1970 Census, yielded the following findings:

1. The lower level of education of Hispanics was the single most important reason for the lower wages they received compared to non-Hispanic Whites.

2. Controlling for sex, age, race, education, and other observable characteristics, lower wages among Hispanic groups were attributed, in part, to employment discrimination. Puerto Rican and Central and South American men were found to experience the most employment discrimination...

Education was found to be the major source of differences in wage offerings.[6] ...

The Reimers study also found that differences in language fluency, time in the United States, work experience, race, age, armed forces experience, health and government employment are also sources of wage differentials. But, after all these factors are taken into consideration, a wage gap still remains, which can be attributed to discrimination.[7] ...

E. Unemployment

Hispanics face severe, continuing unemployment and underemployment. During both good and bad economic times, unemployment among Hispanics is usually 60% higher than that of White Americans....

III. CONCLUSIONS AND POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

An analysis of the labor market data clearly shows that Hispanic workers occupy the bottom rungs of the labor market. Although they have a higher labor force participation and lower unemployment rate than Blacks, Hispanics are the least-educated and earn the lowest wages of any major population group in the country. However, Hispanics are a youthful subpopulation group with a vast productivity potential. Hispanics are projected to account for at least 8% of the labor force by 1995. Though national demographics will favor lower unemployment over the next 12 years as prime-age workers make up a larger share of the work force, the particular demographic trends of the Hispanic community indicate the opposite, since its high birth rates and lower median age mean that Hispanics will be entering the workforce at a high rate.

One long-range effect of this demographic trend is that the taxable salaries of Hispanic workers will be increasingly vital to the fiscal viability of many domestic programs, especially Social Security, which relies on withholding allowances of current workers for the support of current retirees. It is not unrealistic to envision an aged White population being supported by an increasingly non-White workforce. Therefore, changes in public policy, which recognize these demographic realities, are necessary in order to bring about greater parity in the labor market for minority subpopulation groups such as the Hispanic community....

Hard-core structural unemployment primarily affects disadvantaged minorities and individuals who lack the education necessary to meet the needs of a changing economy...

Hispanic workers are disproportionately vulnerable to shifts in the economy and to restrictive federal policies in education and employment and training. The growing Hispanic population will make up an increasing segment of the future labor force. Therefore, to enable Hispanics and other minority groups to make their full contribution in the future -- and to assure a trained workforce which can meet the future needs of the U.S. economy -- human investment partnerships must develop between the public, private, and nonprofit sectors. The Hispanic community is a human resource, whose reservoirs must be tapped in order to maximize its workforce participation and productivity potential. The investment should be made now in order to reap societal benefits and protect the nation's economic security tomorrow.

ENDNOTES

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4. Roth, Dennis, "Hispanics in the U.S. Labor Force: A Brief Examination," Congressional Research Service, Economics Division, Library of Congress, August 1, 1984.
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ATTACHMENT III

ACCESS TO HIGHER EDUCATION: THE EXPERIENCE OF BLACKS, HISPANICS AND LOW SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS WHITES*

(HIGHLIGHTS AND SUMMARY OF REPORT)

HIGHLIGHTS

College Attendance Patterns

The decision to attend college continues to be influenced by a student's socioeconomic circumstances.

▷ Slightly more than half of the students who never attended college are in the study's lowest [Social Economic Status] SES quartile.

▷ Almost half of low-SES whites among 1980 seniors never attended college.

▷ A significant proportion of black 1980 seniors (31 percent) applied to college but were not attending two years later. The overall figure for all 1980 seniors was 23 percent.

▷ Overall, 40 percent of 1980 seniors enrolled in college and were still in attendance two years later.
--- The overwhelming majority of these students (65 percent) were in the highest SES quartile.
--- The least represented groups for college attendance were Mexican-Americans and low-SES whites; among these groups, 23 percent and 25 percent, respectively, were attending college two years later.
--- In contrast, 53 percent of Cuban-Americans and 56 percent of high-SES whites were still in attendance two years later.

▷ Thirty-seven percent of 1980 seniors who entered college after graduation were not in attendance two years later.
--- Minorities and low-SES whites were twice as likely to be in this group than high-SES whites.

Two-Year and Four-Year College Attendance

▷ Of those 1980 seniors enrolled in college 58 percent attended four-year institutions and 44 percent attended two-year colleges.

▷ Students attending four-year colleges had scored somewhat higher on the senior-year achievement tests than their two-year counterparts.

▷ The majority of black and high-SES whites attended four-year institutions (60 percent and 65 percent, respectively).
--- In contrast, 54 percent of low-SES whites and 61 percent of Hispanics attended two-year colleges.

*SOURCE: *Valerie Lee, American Council on Education, Division of Policy Analysis and Research, One Dupont Circle, Washington, D.C. 20036-1193, May 1985.*

- The distribution of Hispanics enrolled in two-year institutions by nationality are:
    - Mexicans-Americans 65 percent
    - Cubans 56 percent
    - Puerto Ricans 48 percent and
    - Other Latins 57 percent

- The average scholarship amount for students attending four-year institutions was twice the amount of those attending two-year colleges.

- Twenty-two percent of students at four-year institutions majored in technical fields as did 19 percent at two-year institutions.

Students Who Withdrew From College

- Overall, men were more likely to withdraw from college than women.
    - Fifty-three percent of men withdrew from college compared to 47 percent of women.
    - Among low-SES whites women withdrew from college more so than their male counterparts.

- Women tended to withdraw for financial reasons. Sixty percent of women indicated they withdrew for financial reasons compared to 40 percent of men.

Characteristics of Students by Achievement Levels

- Seventy-one percent of 1980 seniors of "high ability" were attending college two years later.

- Students of "high ability" were twice as likely to major in the technical fields than those of "average ability".

- Women were less likely to be in the "high ability" group than men.

- Blacks and Hispanics were the least represented 1980 seniors in the "high ability" group.

- More than three quarters of 1980 seniors in the average ability groups were not attending college two years later.

Sex Differences Among Black Students

- More than half of black women (59 percent) were enrolled in college two years after high school graduation compared to 41 percent of black men.

- Black women withdrew from postsecondary education institutions more so than their male counterparts (58 percent vs. 42 percent, respectively).

- Fifty-six percent of black women "couldn't afford to continue" college compared to 44 percent of men.

SUMMARY

Part I: Profiles of Each Group

Blacks

Blacks reported an average family income of $16,374 and more than half (53 percent) indicated that they were from single parent families. Of all the subgroups, blacks were the most likely to come from this family type. On average their parents had 12.4 years of education. More than half (52 percent) of the blacks in the sample were in the lowest [Social Economic Status] SES quartile and 11 percent were in the highest quartile.

While in high school, blacks took an average of approximately two years of mathematics courses and approximately one year of laboratory science. In addition, black students spent about 4 hours per week on homework and watched television for approximately 4 hours per weekday in their senior year of high school. On a senior-year achievement test composite, 56 percent scored in the lowest quartile.

Black students appear to be college-oriented. As far back as the eigth grade, 49 percent expected to go to college. In comparison, 41 percent of Hispanics and 34 percent of low-SES whites expressed this idea in eighth grade. In high school, 52 percent were in the college preparatory track, much higher than either Hispanics or low-SES whites. A correspondingly lower percentage (25 percent) were in the vocational track.

Two years after high school graduation 37 percent of blacks were in college. Approximately 46 percent of blacks in higher education were attending either doctoral granting or comprehensive universities and 36 percent were in two-year institutions. Fewer blacks were in two-year institutions than either Hispanics (53 percent) or low-SES whites (47 percent).

Hispanics

The average family income reported for Hispanics was $18,882; 35 percent were from single-parent homes. Almost half (48 percent) of Hispanic students are in the lowest social class quartile. Their parents had an average of 12.1 years of education.

While in high school, 37 percent of Hispanics were enrolled in the college preparatory track, 34.1 percent were in the general track. Hispanics were more likely to be in the general track than blacks (34 percent vs. 24 percent, respectively). High school coursework for Hispanics included an average of approximately 2 years of math and one year's work in the lab sciences. These students tended to spend an average of 3.5 hours on homework and spent 3.2 hours per weekday watching television. Slightly more than half (51 percent) of Hispanics scored in the lowest achievement quartile on the senior-year test composite.

In 1982, only 38 percent of the original sample of Hispanic high school seniors were enrolled in postsecondary education. College attendance for Hispanics was lower than for blacks (38 percent vs. 37 percent, respectively). As a matter of fact, 68 percent of Hispanics were working for pay two years after high school. Less than half (49 percent) of those going on for postsecondary education had applied to college directly from high school. Of those Hispanics who attended college over half (53 percent) were enrolled in community colleges and about one-third (31 percent) were enrolled in doctoral or comprehensive universities. As far back as the eighth grade, 41 percent planned to attend college.

Low-SES Whites

Whites in the HS & B sample were divided into two groups -- low-SES whites and high SES-whites -- based on a composite measure of a family's socio-economic status. Low SES-whites were used as a disadvantaged comparison group for the two racial/ethnic groups.

Average family income of low-SES whites ($16,566) was slightly higher than that of the black subsample, and somewhat lower than the Hispanic group. This amount represents nearly 50 percent of the average family income of high-SES whites. Overall, the SES level of this group is only slightly below the two racial and ethnic minority groups, but the average parental education (11.4 years) is about one year below that of blacks and Hispanics of low-SES.

In terms of high school achievement, this group falls almost midway between the two minority groups and the high-SES whites. Course enrollment in high school is quite similar to the minority groups. Vocational enrollments are quite similar to that of Hispanics (both 29 percent), with considerably less college preparatory enrollment than found with blacks (36 percent vs. 52 percent). College expectations in the eigth grade were the lowest of the three disadvantaged groups (34 percent).

Reflecting their low positon on college expectations, and in defiance of their overall achievement level, only 28 percent of this sample was in college two years out of high school. Slightly less than half of these students applied to college directly from high school (49 percent), and we find that 63 percent were working for pay in 1982 - the highest percentage of the four groups. Eighteen percent were married, paralleling the Hispanics (16 percent), but much higher than either the blacks or high-SES whites (both 7 percent).

For those 28 percent of the low-SES whites who were actually in college, fewer are in doctoral and research universities (12 percent) and more in comprehensive universities (23 percent). Almost half (47 percent) are in two-year colleges. Course enrollments in math, science, foreign language, and social science are below the other disadvantaged groups.

High-SES Whites

This group was meant to serve as a comparison for the three disadvantaged groups. The average family income for this group ($30,778) is 60 percent more than the next highest group, the Hispanics. The average parental education is over two years more than the highest of the three other groups (14.8 years). Only 18 percent of these students come from single-parent families, about half that for the average of the other groups and, one-third that for blacks.

High school achievement is almost 20 percent higher than that of the minority groups, 10 percent above low-SES whites. All four groups of students seem to average about 20 hours per week in paid work during high school, but by the time these students are two years out of high school, only 51 percent of this group was working, compared to 63 percent of low-SES whites. These students did more homework in high school (4.5 hours/week), watched less television per weekday (2.7 hours), and took considerably more academic courses in high school, averaging a year more of math and twice as much science.

Sixty-five percent of this group took a college preparatory program in high school, and only 14 percent were in the vocational program, figures that are double those of the low-SES white group for college preparatory enrollment, and half that for vocational enrollment. Twice as many of these students (15 percent) went to private high schools. College expectations expressed in the eighth grade were about double those of the low-SES whites (63 percent vs. 34 percent).

The 60 percent of this sample who are in college reflect a much higher percentage who applied directly from high school (75 percent). Over half of these students (52 percent) are in doctoral-granting or comprehensive universities, only a small proportion more than for blacks, but considerably more than for Hispanics or for low-SES whites. Suprisingly, there is a considerable proportion of these students enrolled in two-year colleges (33 percent). College course enrollment in math, science, and social science is higher than for the other groups.

Part II: Further Comparisons Among Subgroups

Students Who Applied to College from High School, But Did Not Attend

A large proportion of students (about 23 percent) reported that they had applied to college while in high school, but two years later they were not in college.

Socioeconomic factors appear to be one of the reasons for not attending college. Over half of the students who never applied to college are in the lowest SES quartile. In comparison, 65 percent of students currently attending college are in the highest SES quartile. Students who applied but subsequently were not attending fall into a middle position, with 26 percent in the lowest SES quartile and 17 percent in the highest quartile. Put differently, approximately 17 percent of those in the highest achievement quartile applied but did not attend. These two measures -- lower than average SES ranking and below average achievement -- suggest that both financial and academic reasons influence students who have applied to college but do not attend.

What are the characteristics of the students in this group? Blacks are more likely to be in the group (31 percent) as are Hispanics (26 percent). The representation of low-SES whites (24 percent) is not significantly different from the overall mean, and high-SES whites are less likely to be represented (19 percent).

If we look only at those students who stated that they had applied to college while still in high school, a striking 37 percent are not in college two years later. However, for minorities those proportions are even greater: 48 percent of those blacks and 50 percent of those Hispanics are no longer in school. Within the population of whites who applied to college from high school, almost twice as many low-SES as high-SES whites are not in college (48 percent vs. 26 percent, respectively) which would indicate that there are socio-economic reasons for the difference.

Students in Two-Year and Four-Year Colleges

Of students in college two years out of high school, almost half (44 percent) are in two-year colleges. There are moderately strong social class and achievement differences in favor of students in four-year colleges. Blacks are less likely than the general population to be found in two-year colleges, and Hispanics are more likely. There are strong social class differences in the white sample's likelihood of attending each college type.

Total institutional costs, which are estimated by the respondents, average about 50 percent lower in two-year than in four-year colleges for school year 1981-82, with tuition comprising the bulk of those costs.

About 14 percent of those students currently in two-year colleges were offered loans, and about the same proportion were offered scholarships, which averaged about $1,100 and $700, respectively. For those students currently in four-year colleges, the proportions are substantially higher: 25 percent were offered loans and 28 percent were offered scholarships, each averaging about $1,200.

There is a strong contrast in the types of courses in which students enroll in the two-year colleges. Students in two-year colleges are less likely to major in technical fields. The most striking differences are found in the areas of physical sciences, biology, and math; no differences exist in either computer science or engineering.

Less than half of the students in two-year colleges plan to graduate from college, compared to 72 percent of those in four-year colleges. The differences in educational aspirations for advanced degrees are even more marked. Only 66 percent of two-year college students, compared to 82 percent of four-year college students feel they have the ability to complete college. However, over 70 percent of them plan to hold white-collar jobs by the age of 30, compared to 83 percent of those in four-year colleges.

In summary, students in two-year colleges are less likely to have been continuously in school since high school and, on average, are lower in both social status and achievement measures. They are less educationally ambitious, and less sure of both their academic abilities and their overall self-image. They were less likely to have been offered financial aid. If aid has been offered, it is considerably less, although representing about the same proportion of total costs. Students in two-year colleges have taken considerably fewer college-level academic courses in all areas, and are somewhat less likely to choose technical areas as possible majors. Blacks are somewhat less likely and Hispanics more likely to be in two-year than four-year colleges. There is less difference in occupational than in educational ambitions for the two groups, which indicates a possible mismatch or lack of information for the two-year college sample.

Students Who Have Interrupted Their Schooling Since High School

This analysis examines students who have been in some form of postsecondary education sometime since high school, but have indicated that they have either "withdrawn from any school since high school" (25 percent) or "transferred from one school to another between high school graduation and February, 1982" (18 percent).

Transfer Students

Transferring seems to be positively related to social class. Achievement does not appear to be related to transfer -- in fact, those in the middle ranges are more likely than either extreme of the achievement distribution to have transferred. Within minority groups, both black and Hispanic males are more likely to transfer than their female counterparts.

Students Who Have Withdrawn

Because of ambiguity in the questionnaire, this group probably includes both those students who have left college at the end of their second year out of high school, and those who have transferred to another school. Comparing these students with those in college who have remained in their original schools, we see that the withdrawal group is lower on measures of social class, high school achievement, and self-image. We could infer that students choose to withdraw for both economic and academic reasons. Students who withdrew were less satisfied with almost every aspect of life in the last school in which they had been enrolled.

The biggest satisfaction differences involve personal intellectual growth and the development of work skills. Students are generally less satisfied with the counseling and job placement aspects of their schools, and more satisfied with aspects of teaching. Readers should be cautioned about drawing any conclusions from students' reports about school dissatisfactions, in view of the fact that personal differences, both economic and intellectual, were related to withdrawal as well.

Of those who state they had withdrawn from some school since high school graduation, 32 percent indicate that they withdrew for financial reasons. Of the group who "could not afford to continue," both the low-quartile SES and the low-quartile achievement groups are over-represented. Blacks, Hispanics, and low-SES whites are all more likely than high-SES whites to have withdrawn for financial reasons, and all three of these groups show males more likely than females to withdraw for lack of the financial means to continue.

In summary, students withdraw from postsecondary educational institutions for a number of reasons: economic, intellectual, and dissatisfaction with their schools. Minority status is related to withdrawal, but it is difficult to say whether this is due to social class or racial differences. Although transfer is positively related to social class, withdrawal is negatively related: both relationships are moderate. The differences among college satisfaction ratings for those students who withdrew vs. those who did not are not surprising; what seems most noteworthy is the fact that such a large proportion of college students have withdrawn from some college by the end of their second year out of high school (25 percent) and that withdrawal is more likely for males than for females throughout most minority subsamples, but not among high-achieving and high-SES whites.

Higher Achieving Students

The entire sample was divided in order to compare the characteristics of lower-achieving and higher-achieving students. This higher achieving group encompasses slightly over 30 percent of the sample. Minority groups are largely underrepresented in this sample, much more so than their lower social class mean would explain. Less than

10 percent of both the black and Hispanic subgroups are in the higher ability group; however, 24 percent of the low-SES whites are so designated (and almost half of the high-SES white sample).

Of the higher achievement group, 71 percent are in college two years out of high school, and 75 percent are working for pay. Clearly, these two groups overlap. Of the entire sample in college, 56 percent of the higher achieving group are in four-year colleges and only 28 percent in two-year colleges, constrasting with 44 percent in four-year and 72 percent in two-year colleges for the remainder of the in-college group.

Clearly achievement and enrollment in four-year colleges are highly related. Also, students of high achievement are much more likely to be in doctoral and research universities, and somewhat more likely to be in comprehensive and liberal arts institutions. The high-achieving students are likely to choose majors in technical areas, particularly in the physical sciences, mathematics, and engineering.

The educational aspirations of the higher-achieving students are considerably higher than the remainder of the sample. For the students who indicate their educational aspirations two years out of high school (30 percent of the entire sample did not answer this question), 77 percent of the more achieving group indicate that they plan at least to complete a BA, and 35 percent plan on pursuing advanced degrees. Comparable figures for the average ability students are 36 percent and 12 percent. Over 80 percent of the more achieving students believe they definitely have the ability to complete college, whereas slightly more than half of the remaining sample share that self-assessment of ability.

Clearly, social class and measured achievement are highly related in this sample, with 41 percent of the upper quartile of the SES distribution falling in the higher ability group, and only 10 percent of the lowest SES quartile so designated. Students in the higher achievement group have taken more math and science courses in high school, 80 percent took three or more years of math, and 38 percent took two or more years of physical science.

High school academic track placement is also highly related to subsequent measured achievement, with over 80 percent of these higher ability students having been in the college preparatory program and only 8 percent in the vocational program. Corresponding figures for the remainder of the sample are quite different: 38 percent in the college preparatory program and 28 percent in the vocational program. Perhaps some further analysis of the 8 percent of students from the vocational program who scored in the top 30 percent on high school achievement might be warranted. Track placement, high school course enrollment, and measured ability are very highly related.

Thus, 30 percent of the sample falling in the group designated higher achievement for this report are more likely to be of a somewhat higher social class, white, and are much more likely to have taken more academic courses in high school. Course enrollment is highly related to high school academic track placement, and both are highly related to achievement measured at the end of high school.

ATTACHMENT IV

naep

THE READING REPORT CARD

Progress Toward Excellence in Our Schools

Trends in Reading over Four National Assessments, 1971-1984

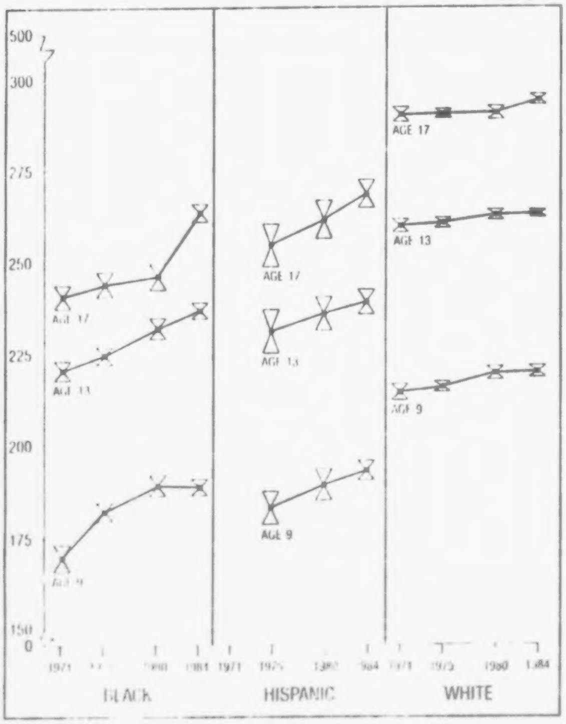
Selected excerpts from subject report:*

Needs Further Improvement

■ The marked improvements in the achievement of minority and disadvantaged urban students between 1971 and 1984 have reduced the gap between their performance and that of other students. Still, the average reading proficiency of these students is quite low and in need of further improvement. For example, the average reading proficiency of Black and Hispanic 17-year-olds is only slightly higher than that of White 13-year-olds.

Trends in Average Reading Proficiency for White, Black, and Hispanic Students

FIGURE 3.1



Birth Date Ranges
Age 9 Born Jan-Dec 1961, 65, 70, 74
Age 13 Born Jan-Dec 1957, 61, 66, 70
Age 17 Born Oct-Sept 1953-54, 57-58, 62-63, 66-67

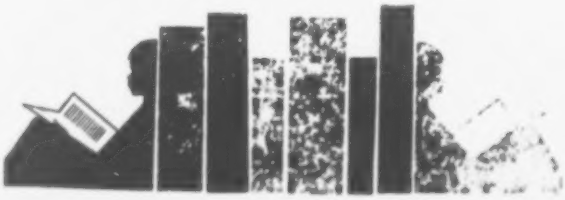
naep

* estimated population mean reading proficiency and 95% confidence interval. It can be said with 95 percent certainty that the mean reading proficiency of the population of interest is within this interval.

■ Six percent of 9-year-olds in 1984 could not do rudimentary reading exercises and are in danger of future school failure. Forty percent of 13-year-olds and 16 percent of 17-year-olds attending high school have not acquired intermediate reading skills and strategies, raising the question of how well these students can read the range of academic material they are likely to encounter in school. Few students, only about 5 percent, even at age 17, have advanced reading skills and strategies.

Other Trends

■ The influence of home environment is apparent from the relationship between reading proficiency and both available reading material in the home and level of parental education. At all three ages, students from homes with an abundance of reading materials are substantially better readers than those who have few materials available. At all three ages, students whose parents have a post-high school education read substantially better than those whose parents have not graduated from high school.



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*SOURCE: Report No. 15-R-01, National Assessment of Educational Progress, Educational Testing Service, Rosedale Road, Princeton, New Jersey 08541.

ATTACHMENT V

News letter of the American Council on Education

HIGHER EDUCATION & NATIONAL AFFAIRS

VOLUME 34, NUMBER 19 NATIONAL CIRCULATION: 23,000 October 14, 1985

Dim Outlook for Minorities in Higher Ed Continues

The discouraging outlook for minorities in higher education has not changed much this year, reports the American Council on Education's (ACE) Office of Minority Concerns (OMC) in its 1985 status report.

Minorities continue to be underrepresented on the nation's campuses. In addition, minority access to higher education is becoming increasingly limited because of high drop out rates, more rigorous testing and admissions standards, and reduced financial aid.

The report also found that the disparity in enrollment rates for white and minority students has extended beyond that typically found in two- and four-year colleges and universities to all postsecondary education programs.

Whites, who make up 80 percent of the total U.S. population, represent 85.8 percent of students in academic institutions, 81.5 percent in vocational institutions, and 91.4 percent in continuing education programs. Blacks, on the other hand, who made up 11.7 percent of the U.S. population in 1980, were proportionately represented only in vocational programs, with 11.9 percent enrollment. Black students made up only 9.9 percent of enrollment in academic programs and 4.9 percent in continuing education programs.

In addition, blacks are shifting from graduate education to professional studies in areas such as law and medicine. "This is a disturbing shift, in view of the chronic underrepresentation of blacks on faculties and administration in higher education," the report said.

Hispanics, however, increased their ranks in all levels of graduate as well as professional study, although they are substantially underrepresented in these areas. Minority enrollment in medical and law schools has been growing steadily since the 1974-75 academic year.

To increase minority participation in higher education, high school graduation rates and college enrollment rates must be improved, the report said. "It is also imperative that retention and graduation rates in higher education

Although Hispanics have increased their ranks in graduate school and professional studies such as law and medicine, these students are still underrepresented at most education levels, according to the American Council on Education's 1985 status report on minorities in higher education. Only in two-year undergraduate institutions—which enroll about half of all Hispanic undergraduate students—does enrollment of Hispanics come close to their proportion of the total population, the report found.

Minorities Hurt by Poor High School Programs

(continued from page 1)

be enhanced."

OMC's three previous status reports, published annually, have found that minority students are more likely than whites to drop out at every point in the education pipeline. In addition, high school academic programs for minorities "differ in kind and content from those of white students," the report noted. "This [inferior education] could further seriously affect their participation rates in higher education unless substantial measures are taken to provide the compensatory and remedial education necessary to meet the increased standards."

However, federal and state funding for such programs is decreasing, OMC found. As the income level of minority students has worsened, federal student aid has shifted more in favor of middle-class white students. Currently, "the declining college participation of minorities is attributable to reduced social commitment to affirmative action, to various access barriers, and to a reduced supply of federal grants," the report concluded.

"Allowing declines in minority participation to continue unchecked will return society to an elitist system of a highly educated upper and middle class, mostly white, and a seriously undereducated working and poor class, mostly nonwhite—in other words, educational and, consequently, economic apartheid," said the report.

OMC noted one bright spot in the otherwise dismal outlook. Asians and Pacific Islanders were found to be overrepresented at almost every level of higher education in relation to their proportion of the population. These students were slightly underrepresented in higher education administration, however.

For a copy of the report, send $5 after Oct. 21 to the Office of Minority Concerns, ACE, One Dupont Circle, Washington, DC 20036, (202) 939-9396.

ATTACHMENT VI

State of Indiana
Commission for Higher Education

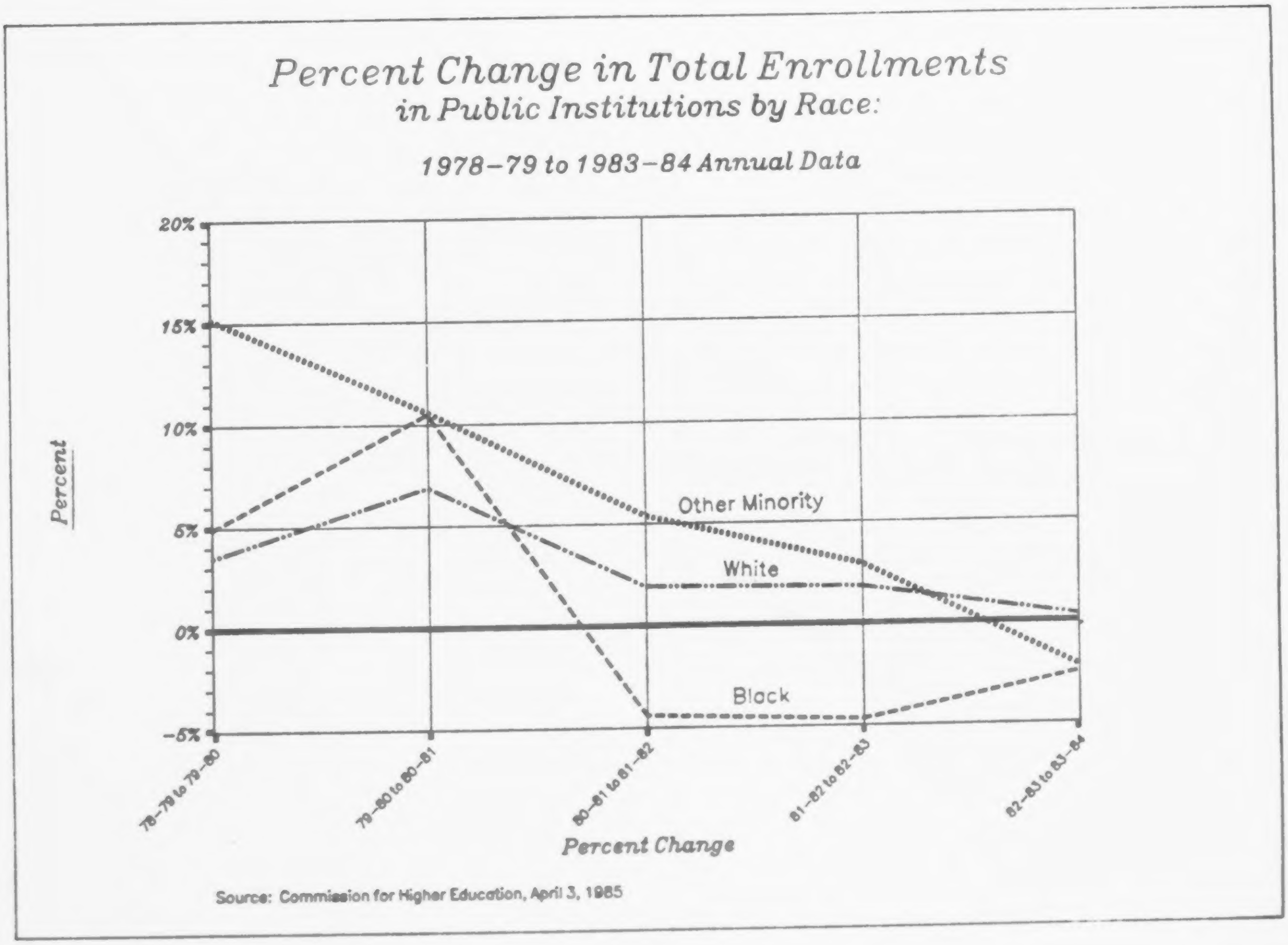
143 West Market Street Indianapolis, Indiana 46204-2892 (317) 232-1900 Dr. Clyde R. Ingle, **Commissioner**

Higher Education Fact Sheet

BLACK ENROLLMENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION CONTINUE DECLINE

- For the third year in a row, Black enrollments declined at the state's colleges and universitites.
- Overall, the number of blacks attending college dropped 1.9% from 1982-83 to 1983-84, decreasing 2.5% at public institutions while increasing 4.5% at the independent institutions.
- Among the public institutions, black enrollments increased at Vincennes and Indiana Vocational Technical College.
- Among the public institutions, the downward trend was more pronouced at the commuter (regional) campuses than at the residential ones.
- In 1983-84 the total higher education enrollment at public institutions is 279,788. At independent colleges it is estimated to be 55,882. Precise figures are not available since some independent colleges do not report their enrollments.
- 20,241 of the total college student population, or 6.2%, were Black, down from the peak year of 1980-81 when there were 22,769 Black students.
- In 1980-81 Black youths (16-19) constituted 8.8% of the general population but only 7.0% of the state's college students.
- Enrollments of other minorities declined 1.1% in 1983-84 from 1982-83, the first such decrease since 1978-79. A decline of 2.2% at public institutions was partially offset by an increase of 4.8% at the independents.
- The number of White students remained relatively steady, increasing only 0.4% overall; White enrollments went up 0.3% at the public institutions and 1.0% at the independents.
- In 1983-84 Blacks made up 6.7% of the students at public colleges while other ethnic minorities 2.4%, and Whites represented 90.9%. At independent institutions the breakdown was 3.6% for Blacks, 2.5% for other minorities and 93.8% for Whites.

April, 1985



Percent Change in Total Enrollments in Public Institutions by Race:

1978-79 to 1983-84 Annual Data

Source: Commission for Higher Education, April 3, 1985

ATTACHMENT VII

HERE THEY COME, READY OR NOT (HIGHLIGHTS)*

TODAY'S NUMBERS, TOMORROW'S NATION

Demography's Awesome Challenge for Schools

The new demographic shockwave is being heralded not by the maternity wards but by the geriatric wards. There are now, for the first time, more Americans over 65 than under 18. Their numbers will soar even more dramatically when the Baby Boomers begin to retire.

In their enormous wake, demography tells us, a markedly different generation of Americans is developing. It will be smaller, and it will be more racially and ethnically diverse than any previous generation in American history.

And in the demography of the emerging generation will be writ large the shifting patterns in the nation's class and family structures, in its immigration flow, in its workforce and social-support systems, and in its regional concentrations of people.... And social and political institutions -- with the schools -- will have to reckon with them.

Next September, more than 3.6 million children will begin their formal schooling in the United States.

▷1 out of 4 of them will be from families who live in poverty.
▷14 percent will be the children of teenage mothers.
▷15 percent will be physically or mentally handicapped.
▷As many as 15 percent will be immigrants who speak a language other than English.
▷14 percent will be children of unmarried parents.
▷40 percent will live in a broken home before they reach 18.
▷10 percent will have poorly educated, even illiterate, parents.
▷Between one quarter and one third will be latchkey children with no one to greet them when they come home from school.
▷And a quarter or more of them will not finish school.

... That many will bring with them baggage of familial, racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic stress is well known to educators. What is less well understood is that if current trends persist, the proportion of children "at risk" for school failure for these reasons will grow with each passing year for the foreseeable future.

... If demographic trends and projections prove reasonably accurate, these children will face awesome challenges as society seeks to replace the skills of the retiring Baby Boomers. And, if our past experience in dealing with the most needy children is any guide, they will be ill-equipped to meet those challenges.

If the United States is "a nation at risk," as the National Commission on Excellence in Education said in 1983, the "risk" may be largely concentrated in this growing segment of educationally disadvantaged children. They will compose the workforce that will compete in an increasingly technological marketplace. And they will be looked to for the economic productivity to sustain a burgeoning support system for the elderly.

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* *Special Report in Education Week, May 14, 1986, Vol. V (No. 34), pp. 13-37.*

Yet, as reform seeks "excellence" through tightened standards that often exclude them, these children appear, more than ever, to be virtually doomed to lifelong membership in a permanent underclass.

... In a very real sense, an underdeveloped country of some 40 million people has grown in our midst. The majority of its inhabitants are poor, nonwhite, uneducated if not illiterate, unemployed and often unemployable, and largely dependent on government for their survival.

But there is also a growing recognition that the high toll of poverty is not limited to the personal tragedy of millions of individual Americans. Recent studies and reports have documented the enormous cost to society of poverty's progeny: illiteracy, unemployment, teenage pregnancy, violence, and crime.

And the eroding power of the United States in the world marketplace and the declining number of young people in the society have led to a growing awareness that the United States can no longer afford to waste a sixth or more of its human resources. If the nation is to prosper and be secure, business, the military, and academe must have an expanding supply of well-educated young people.

Translation: The schools must do a better job, must find ways to meet the demand.

DEMOGRAPHIC PORTRAIT: DIVERSITY

The Patterns In Our Social Fabric Are Changing

Today, we are a nation of 240 million people, about 50 million (21 percent) of whom are black, Hispanic, and Asian.... Soon after the turn of the century, one out of every three Americans will be nonwhite.

Immigration patterns and differential fertility rates among various groups are significantly changing the nation's racial composition....

Currently, the fertility rate for white American women is 1.7 children per lifetime. The comparable rate for black women is 2.4; for Mexican-American women, it is 2.9 -- precisely the same average rate for white women during the Baby Boom era.

Moreover, the average white American is 31 years old; the average black American is only 25 and the average Hispanic American only 23. White Americans are moving out of their child-bearing years just as black and Hispanic Americans are moving into them....

America has always been a nation of immigrants. The resulting ethnic and cultural diversity has given this society a distinctive vitality. But the assimilation of newcomers into the mainstream culture has been a difficult and tumultuous process that has sometimes strained the social fabric even as it strengthened it.

... In 1984, some 544,000 people immigrated legally to the United States -- roughly as many as the annual average during the 1920's. Add the estimated 300,000 to 500,000 people who entered the country illegally and 1984 becomes the greatest year for immigration in our history. Immigrants entering the United States each year account for two-thirds of all the immigrants in the world....

During the early part of this century, the majority of immigrants to the United States were of European heritage, and the color of their skin undoubtedly eased their assimilation into the predominantly white American mainstream. Today, however, most are Hispanic and Asian.... Three out of four of the illegal immigrants came from Latin America....

Most parts of the nation as yet feel little impact from this wave of immigrants because the majority of the newcomers are choosing to settle in relatively few places. But in those areas, the effects have been astounding....

Like a number of their predecessors in the early part of the century, many of today's immigrants are unwilling to abandon their cultures -- as the price for becoming American....

Recently, a major market-research firm conducted a study ... to determine what aspects of their culture Hispanics wanted most to preserve. More than 4 out of 5 of the respondents listed the preservation of the Spanish language as their top priority.

DEMOGRAPHIC PORTRAIT: AGE

Old Americans, Young Americans

The Baby Boom has caused a seeming demographic anomaly: The nation is growing both older and younger at the same time.

In 1983, we passed a demographic watershed. For the first time in our history, the number of Americans over age 65 surpassed the number of American teen-agers. That is a situation that will not change during the lifetime of anyone reading this report. Today, the median age of the U.S. population is just over 30 years. By the turn of the century, the median age will reach 36;...

Even more striking are predictions regarding life expectancy. Today, about 1 out of 10 Americans (11.6 percent) is 65 or older; by 2030, 1 out of 5 Americans will be over 65 (21.2 percent). Children born today can expect to live and work to age 62, then retire and live for almost 20 more years.

Another measure of the phenomenon: This year, about 30 people a day are turning 100. By 2030, when the last of the Baby Boomers reach retirement age, about 280 people a day will do so....

The post-World War II Baby Boom was mainly a white middle-class phenomenon;... The emerging baby boomlet, and the cohorts of children born after it ends, will be disproportionately nonwhite.

Between 1985 and 1993, elementary-school enrollment is expected to increase by about 4.5 million. The number of children 18 and younger is expected to rise from about 63 million today to 67 million by the end of the century.

Over the past five years, the U.S. population has increased by 12.2 million; almost all of that increase (more than 90 percent) occurred in Southern and Western states.... The figures indicate a continuing migratory trend toward the Sun Belt States that began in the last 1940's and picked up dramatically in the 1970's.

Some experts, however, believe that the exdus from the Midwestern "Rust Bowl" has been stemmed, at least temporarily.

DEMOGRAPHIC PORTRAIT: FAMILY

Traditional Families -- A Dying Breed?

The "traditional" household -- a working fathr, a mother at home, and two or more school aged children -- has long been one of the icons of American culture. In 1955, about 60 percent of the nation's households matched that image. But ... today only 4 percent of the nation's households are "traditional."

... Of our 80 million households, almost 20 milion consist of people living alone. Another 9.5 million consist of women raising children by themselves....

In 1981, we passed another statistical landmark: The number of married, childless couples surpassed the number of married couples with children....

Today, a steadily increasing percentage of women are choosing to have children later in life, or not at all;...

More and more women who decide to have children are combining employment and motherhood. Today, 7 out of 10 women between the ages of 17 and 44 are in the workforce....

The incidence of divorce has also risen dramatically over the past two decades....

Most children under 18 continue to live with two parents, but their numbers are declining, from 59 million (84 percent) in 1970 to 47 million (75 percent) in 1984. Conversely, the number of children living in one-parent families has skyrocketed, from just over 8 million (12 percent) in 1970 to 14 million (23 percent) in 1984. Six out of 10 children born in 1983 (59 percent) will live with only one parent before reaching age 18....

Of the 14 million children who grow up in single-parent households, 9 out of 10 live in families headed by single females....

- ▷16 percent have mothers who are under 25, and 3.5 percent have teen-age mothers;
- ▷36 percent have mothers who did not complete high school;
- ▷50 percent have mothers who are unemployed or not in the labor force;
- ▷62 percent of such families have annual incomes under $10,000;
- ▷42 percent of such families live in central cities;
- ▷24 percent of the children living in these situations were born out of wedlock.

There is an epidemic of teen-age pregnancy in the United States....

The number of births among teen-agers has been declining over the past decade.... Nonetheless, the number of teens who become pregnant every year continues to increase, as does the number of unmarried teens who give birth. And the United States continues to lead most developed and developing nations in its rate of teen-age pregnancy.

Although blacks account for only about 15 percent of the teen-age population, half of all births to teens in 1983 were to black mothers....

Premature babies tend to be low-birth-weight babies, have poorly developed immune systems, grow up to be less healthy on the average than others, and later exhibit learning difficulties more often.... Teen-age mothers also tend to give birth to children who become teen-age mothers themselves.... [E]very day in America 40 teen-agers give birth to their third child.

Nearly half (43 percent) of all young women who drop out of school do so because of pregnancy or marriage. Half of all teen-age mothers drop out of school and never return. Teen-age fathers are about 40 percent less likely to graduate than their peers who do not father children.

DEMOGRAPHIC PORTRAIT: CORRELATIONS

Who's Dependent Upon Whom?

A growing percentage of the nation's children are being born into, and growing up in, environments that

- Black and Hispanic children who do graduate from high school are less likely than white graduates to enroll in college, and the college-going rate for minority graduates has been falling....

The percentage of degrees awarded to minority college students is also declining....

- Even as the number of minority students increases, the scarcity of minority teachers is becoming acute....

The growing trend toward requiring prospective teachers to pass competency tests in order to be licensed is likely to shrink the pool of minority teachers even more.

At the same time that the indicators for minority groups' academic success seem negative, the education community faces broader uncertainties about the size and quality of the overall teaching force in the years ahead.

The average age of the American teacher is now 42, and about half of the 2.1 million teachers working today will retire, resign, or die in the next six years. Meanwhile, only half as many college students are majoring in education as did so in 1972....

Knowledgeable observers are contending that the real "crisis" in teaching will be one of quality. The shortage, they say, will not be a shortage of teachers, but a shortage of qualified teachers.

About 20 percent of all teachers are now teaching in fields for which they are not certified or eligible for certification; in subject areas such as mathematics and science, more than half of today's teachers have substandard qualifications.

Moreover, the teaching profession is attracting and retaining fewer academically able young people than it has in the past....

To assure that there is a teacher in every classroom, states and districts will very likely provide for emergency certification and alternative routes to certification. And that, many educators warn, could lead to a generation of teachers ill-prepared and ill-equipped to provide a meaningful education for the burgeoning at-risk populations.

DEMOGRAPHIC PORTRAIT: LABOR FORCE

Help Wanted: Competition For The Young

The coming changes have not been lost on America's business leaders. "Over the next 10 to 15 years, the workforce will undergo a major change in composition," notes the National Alliance of Businesses in a recent report on employment policies of the future. "Most striking will be the growth of less well-educated segments of the population that have typically been the least prepared for work. The number of minority youth will increase, while the total number of youth of working age will decline. The number of high-school dropouts will rise as will the number of teen-age mothers. At the same time, entry-level jobs will increasingly require basic, analytical, and interpersonal skills."...

What sorts of jobs await America's youth? During the late 1970's and early 1980's, 20 million new jobs were created by the nation's businesses; only 5 percent were in manufacturing, while 90 percent were in the service and information industries.

Much has been written about the impending employment boom in hightechnology industries. However, those businesses now provide only 6.2 percent of all jobs in the United States and are expected to provide only 6.6 percent of all jobs by 1995. Moreover, fewer than 4 percent of all workers employed by such businesses are in one way or another endanger their physical, emotional, and intellectual development.

In 1974, children became the poorest segment of American society, displacing the aged.

Since then, child poverty has grown deeper and more widespread. In 1984, nearly one-fourth of all children under 17 lived in poverty, including 1 of every 2 black children and 2 of every 5 Hispanic. Females live in poverty.

The continuing high birth rates among teen-agers also contribute to the growing number of families living in poverty.... [S]ome studies suggest ... that 8 out 10 families headed by teen-age girls live in poverty. State and federal governments paid out $16.7 billion in 1985 in welfare aid to mothers who had children during their teen-age years.

The at-risk population now entering the schools is appearing at a time when the nation's attention and resources are of necessity being drawn to the problems and needs of an even faster-growing segment of the U.S. population -- the aging.

... According to current projections, by the year 2030 American adults will be in the position of having to care for an equal number of children and retirees. In other words, every 100 workers will be supporting 74 dependents, equally divided between the young and the old.

... If current demographic patterns hold, the workers on which the aging society will so heavily depend will be fewer in number, more racially and ethnically diverse, more likely to have grown up in poverty, more likely to be the progeny of broken homes, and more likely to suffer from physical, mental, and emotional handicaps....

As the older segment of the population grows in size, it will also grow in political influence -- already, the number of eligible voters ages 65 and over slightly outnumbers those ages 18 to 24. The concern of many educators and policymakers is that older citizens without children, worried about their pensions and their health care, will be less willing to support the rising costs of education.

DEMOGRAPHIC PORTRAIT: SCHOOLING

At Risk: Pupils And Their Teachers

In the years ahead, the population diversity that Americans consider a hallmark of their democracy will become more pronounced. For educators, that will mean working with cohorts of children more ethnically and racially diverse than ever before -- and more of whom will bring with them the array of "risk" factors that bode ill for their development.

A growing proportion of America's young people will be poor, nonwhite, limited-English-proficient, and from broken families in which parents themselves lack education....

> Despite modest gains in recent years, black and Hispanic children on the average continue to score far below their white peers on standardized tests....

> In spite of improvement over time, minority children are still far more likely than whites to drop out of high school.

Moreover, some educators worry that stiffened graduation and promotion policies enacted in the current school-reform movement will force even more minority students to drop out. As of 1984, only a handful of states that had raised their standards included provisions aimed at helping students who did not achieve the new goals.

actually involved in "high-tech" work; the vast majority are assemblers, clerks, janitors, and other laborers.

Most of the new jobs that will be created in coming years will be in low-paying categories.... By 1990, 75 percent of all new job will require only minimal education or technical training beyond the high-school level.

The result, some observers predict, will be the creation of a bi-polar labor force. Few people will hold high-paying jobs requiring high levels of skill; the vast majority of workers will be locked into low-paying, low-skill positions. The American middle class, they say, is disappearing.

But not all experts agree on that scenario. Some contend that technological advances are creating a need for higher skill levels in the workforce and that adult work-related education is of paramount importance. Moreover, they argue, the better educated the workforce, the more sophisticated the economy is likely to become and the more likely the higher-level jobs will be created.

A large segment of the minority youth population has looked to the military as a means of escaping poverty since the integration of the armed services in the 1950's. And as the young-adult population declines, the military will find itself in competition with business and higher education for the young men and women it will need to replenish the ranks of its All-Volunteer Force.

...[T]echnological advances in weaponry and support services may close the door to a career in the military for ... disadvantaged candidates.

Today, all military recruits must have a high-school diploma or must score above 50 percent on the Armed Forces Qualification Test. With the high-school completion rate for minority 18- and 19-year-olds hovering around 55 percent, it is clear that a career in the military is no longer an option for a significant percentage of these young adults. It is equally clear, some say, that a draft will eventually be necessary to maintain the armed forces at a level adequate for national security.

ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSION: ISSUES*

Diversity, Class: 'Different Issues'

Education Week: Social and demographic forces are reshaping our society in profound ways -- the dissolution of the traditional family, the massive influx of immigrants, the increasing number of at-risk children, the growth of the elderly population and the shrinking of the younger population. How serious is this situation for the nation and its schools? What are its dimensions?

Harold L. Hodgkinson: One dimension is what is happening to the family in the United States. Only 4 percent of the households are traditional families -- mother, father, two school-age children. Twenty-two million people live alone. There has been a steady decline in the percentage of family households with children in public schools....

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*THE PANELISTS:

Chester E. Finn Jr. is assistant secretary for educational research and improvement and counselor to the secretary of education in the U.S. Education Department.

Harold L. Hodgkinson, former director the National Institute of Education, is scholar in residence at the American Council on Education in Washington.

David L. Hornbeck is Maryland's superintendent of schools and president-elect of the Council of Chief State School Officers.

Lee R. McMurrin is superintendent of the Milwaukee Public Schools.

Donald Smith, immediate past president of the National Alliance of Black School Educators, is professor of education at Baruch College of the City University of New York.

Raul Yzaguirre is president of the National Council of La Raza, a Hispanic civil-rights organization.

Many people are not aware of the population changes within their state. I was in Indiana yesterday speaking to a state-sponsored conference of 1,400 people. Indiana is experiencing a fairly significant increase in the minority population and an increase in poverty in most of its urban areas. Yet there must have been 50 people who came up afterwards and said, "Why hasn't anybody told us about this?"[Bold Added]

The thing about demographics is that you can follow these cohorts through and it doesn't take you 14 years to make conclusions about your entering freshman class at Purdue. They were born 18 years earlier....

I mentioned Indiana, where the diversity is low. But the tolerance for diversity in that state is also low. If the student body in Indiana goes from 10 percent minority to 15 percent, that is an issue. Just as it is an issue in elementary schools in California where more than half the students are not white.[Bold Added]

How tolerant will we be of the new racial and ethnic diversity that is coming into the system? Each part of the country will have to deal with that question.

Chester E. Finn Jr.: There is a huge distinction between the diversity issue and what I would call the underclass issue. They are really very, very different.

Diversity means that we have more nationalities, languages, cultures than we used to and in larger numbers. This is a trend. It is not necessarily a problem. It has one set of implications, and they are not brand new implications for a country that has always been a melting pot country....

That is one set of things. The other involves very worrisome data about social decay in the form of poverty, illiteracy, illegitimacy, other things that are signs of social pathology, underclass issues. That carries with it a whole set of problems and implications, but they would be problems even if there were no diversity.

Donald Smith: We have never had a national policy that welcomes diversity when that diversity includes peoples of all cultures.

The diversity that has been welcomed here typically has been the European diversity. It has not been African and Latin American diversity. As we address the question of diversity, we have to bear in mind that some groups are favored and some are not....

Mr. Hodgkinson: ... I would take exception to Checker Finn's clear, somewhat rigid dichotomy between diversity and underclass. Certain groups clearly are more likely to be in the underclass than others. There is a strong relationship between race and poverty.

Lee McMurrin: ... Our problem is that we have a concentration of population that has been traditionally disadvantaged in America. And what has been true historically for them will continue to hold true as they move in larger numbers to our cities -- unless we do something about it. Direct action will have to be taken or these disadvantaged will not naturally move through the system. They will not naturally move into universities. They will not naturally move into jobs that they should have because roadblocks have been set up that close access to the opportunities that are open to other groups....

Mr. McMurrin: Poverty is probably the greatest roadblock these children experience in our city....

Mr. Finn: ... This is not exclusively an urban phenomenon. It is not a minority phenomenon. It is a class and economic phenomenon, and it is a real one. If it is a barrier, it is a barrier for people who experience it....

David L. Hornbeck: It is not natural ... to conclude that while we clearly have a problem that relates to the poor whites, there is an exacerbated problem as it related to poor blacks?

Mr. Smith: ... A critical distinction I observed ... was that most poor whites felt they were poor because they were down on their luck or didn't meet job requirements, didn't have the skills. But most minorities felt very clearly that even luck and job skills were not the entire quotient, that their skin color was a major factor holding them back.

When we talk about the poor, we have to remember that the nonwhites are stigmatized groups and their feelings about themselves clearly relate to their aspirations and their degree of belief that they have some control over their own destiny and that there is some degree of fairness in the land....

Mr. Hodgkinson: It is clear in the heartland states that there is an increase in poverty among rural whites as a percentage of whites overall in the population. But even with the increase, it is nothing compared to the percentage of poverty among other groups, rural or urban.

Raul Yzaguirre: Obviously, there is an underclass, and obviously a majority of the underclass are white -- two-thirds are white. But that is not the real issue. The question is: To what extent is poverty an intractable, almost unsolvable kind of problem for different populations? When you talk about the real people who are third-generation poor, then you are talking about blacks, Hispanics,and Appalachian whites and Native Americans. With those populations, poverty seems to be permanent.

Mr. Smith: The problem is one that requires a comprehensive approach. It is the problem of employment, health, housing, education. The school can do only so much. I'm not sure that the schools now do as much as they can, but we have to recognize their limitations. Who bears the responsibility for bringing the other segments together to address what is becoming a national crisis? Who bears that responsibility?

ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSION: IMPLICATIONS

'The Dropouts Go On Everyone Else's Rolls'

Education Week: What are the implications of these "intractable" social problems and powerful demographic forces for society and for the schools?...

Mr. Smith: We talk about at-risk children and their increasing numbers. We need also to look at the risks that those at-risk children pose for the larger society if something does not happen to improve their circumstances and their condition.

Those of us who live in cities are acutely aware of what will happen when large numbers of young people are out on the streets and become victimized by drugs, victimized by a lack of job opportunities.

They will survive as they have to survive, and the entire infrastructure will be at risk. Everybody is going to be a risk. How to deal with that is a major question. It is not just a question of what is humane to do for the at-risk children; it is a question of what must we do for our own personal survival.

Mr. Yzaguirre: We've got to find a way to make it clear to the public that it is in their best interest to support education and to address these problems. ... When people reach retirement age in the future, there better be enough well-educated people out there working to pay for Social Security.

Mr. Hodgkinson: In about eight states, a war between the generations is likely just because of the rapid increase in the number of people over 65, which is the most rapidly growing segment of the population. ... In 30 years or so, when the Baby Boomers begin retiring, you'll see an incredible dependency of that group, which is very, very white. Somebody is going to have to cover those costs.

Education Week: Is the "somebody" you refer to the generation that includes a growing at-risk population?

Mr. Hodgkinson: Yes, and it will be much smaller in size than the generation it will be supporting. The assumption in the public press has been that minority fertility rates are going up, and they are not. The critical factor is the decline in white fertility....

Mr. McMurrin: The students the schools lose -- dropouts is one definition -- go on everyone else's rolls. They get on the municipal court's rolls because they're involved in crimes; they go on the juvenile court's rolls; they go on the social-service rolls. They become a lot more expensive to society than the cost of educating them....

Education Week: Has the dropout problem become worse?...

Mr. Yzaguirre: It's a differential problem. It has gotten to be much more of a serious problem for Hispanics. There have probably been improvements in the white situation, but there is more of a problem for blacks and Hispanics.

Mr. Hodgkinson: ... It is true that in 1900 about 10 percent of young people graduated from high school. So we've made great progress. But retention appears to be dropping.

And attendance is falling sharply because truant officers no longer have any authority. ... The kids who aren't going to school are going to get into some kind of trouble.

Mr. Smith: The situation is going to get worse. And here's why. For African Americans, dropout rates in some of our major cities -- like New York and Chicago -- already are at an epidemic level. ... And the circumstances that cause dropouts continue to get worse.

We have allowed the African American family to disintegrate. Thirteen-year-olds are having children they are in no position to nurture and no position to give values to.

The unemployment rate among that group is appalling. Those young women who are giving birth to children cannot be employed. Very often, the father is nowhere to be found, so they are living in poverty.

The poverty rate is increasing. The dropout rate is increasing. Teenage pregnancies are increasing. Incarceration rates are increasing. We already have a crisis and it is going to get ever worse if there are not major interventions....

There is no national leadership and very little local leadership on the crises that I am talking about....

We are going to have to face the issue very soon or it is going to consume us....

Mr. Hornbeck: The success of the school-reform movement in this regard is going to depend on what sort of support mechanisms are adopted to help kids meet the higher standards.

Mr. Finn: If we are going to have meaningful standards that kids are going to be held to -- and that is certainly the central concept of the reform movement -- we have got to make those standards plain the first day of 1st grade. We've got to make this clear from the instant the kid encounters education -- what he is going to have to do by tomorrow, what he's going to have to do next week, what he's going to have to do by next year. Then we've got to apply these things fairly, firmly, and with support all the way along.

Mr. McMurrin: Standards aren't bad in themselves. People are beginning now to think maybe the standards are too high and there's something wrong with the standards. But there is something about standards that creates higher expectations, which we need for our students and the teachers.

Mr. Smith: There's no question about the need for high standards, but there are some very important considerations in attempting to achieve them.

The school system, the state legislature, the federal government must be willing to provide the kinds of resources that are necessary to help children who have been neglected for many years to reach those standards.

If there are high levels of expectations for children, then teachers ought to have equally high levels of expectations that those children can be taught and they can learn.

If these things are present, at-risk children can achieve higher standards.

Mr. Yzaguirre: It is great to raise the hurdle, but you've got to provide better coaching as well. Because if all you're doing is raising hurdles, then fewer people will be able to go over them. That really doesn't accomplish anything.

ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSION: OUTLOOK

'The Gap Will Not Close on its Own'

Education Week: Are the schools in a position to do more, or better, with the at-risk population as things stand now?

Mr. McMurrin: There are some windows of opportunity now with these children.... What we need is action.

Mr. Hornbeck: The single most important initiative that we can take would be to provide the opportunity for more kids to become involved in early-education programs. Now the opportunity is generally only available to the affluent, not the poor.

Mr. McMurrin They can't get early education because of the economic constraints -- the schools don't have the money. And there's not enough public support for early-childhood education.

Mr. Finn: ... There is quite a lot more money being spent on public education today than there has ever been before per teacher, per pupil, per everything.

Mr. McMurrin: But look at the burdens we're carrying. We have youngsters who are handicapped and youngsters who used to be institutionalized.

Mr. Finn: These represent conscious choices to do more for some children.

Mr. McMurrin: Schools have been given these additional tasks. Some of the tasks we did not have before. Someone else did them, and the dollars were appropriated someplace else. Or they weren't done at all.

Mr. Hornbeck: Isn't the issue not whether funding has gone up or down, but whether we have enough to do the job?...

Mr. McMurrin: Financial reform favored the suburbs and hurt the cities, and it is called an equalization program....

Mr. Yzaguirre: ... [W]e ought to be asking the question of what our money is buying. And we should ask how we can improve what we are doing with the existing resources. But the fact remains that even if per-pupil expenditures are increasing, they are not increasing enough....

The question is, how much do we need to spend, and are we spending that much?

Mr. Hodgkinson: It's a means-versus-range issue. Checker Finn quotes means, and I tend to quote ranges. Whatever the national averages.... You can find 150 good urban minority high schools that are performing at an incredibly high rate; you can also find 150 big urban high schools that are doing absolutely abominably.

But I have to say also that I see some really quite exciting things happening. And a lot of them were in place long before "A Nation at Risk."...

There is an elementary school in Cleveland, Ohio, which is 90 percent black and boasts achievement scores above the national average on every kind of test. The average parental income is about $10,000, but the kids are doing extremely well.

The school follows a very simple formula: A principal who really encourages leadership in the classroom and parents who are involved -- and 10 percent of their parents are from conventional families. The officials at that school realize that it's easier and cheaper to keep pupils at grade level from the first day of school than it is to try to get them back up to grade level several years later.

Mr. Finn: The outlook can shift from a kind of pervasive gloom to a reasonable degree of optimism when you shift from the question of "how are we going to solve the problem of underclass children?" to the question of "what are the characteristics of a very good school that does what is within its power to do for all the children attending it?"

That may not solve your underclass problem, but it is possible to model the kinds of changes Bud Hodgkinson talks about.

Mr. McMurrin: Milwaukee has just released a report of a 10-year study of school achievement throughout the grades in reading and mathematics. That report shows that the white and black scores are both improving and the black population is going up faster, though there is still a gap. And that is true in other parts of the country....

In order to achieve that, however, we will have to have additional resources. The gap will not close on its own. This kind of progress didn't just happen. We had school-effectiveness programs....

Progress can be made, but it takes intervention.

Mr. Finn: We should not overlook minority progress and the evidence of growing middle-class success stories.

Education Week: What is the formula for that success?

Mr. Hodgkinson: Public concern, getting people to do what is right.

Mr. Hornbeck: One of the most intriguing pieces of the effective-schools research demonstrated that in any school that really made progress, you really had to take seriously the achievement of kids, and that is correlated highly with expectation....

The issue is not whether kids are improving on the average. The average by definition means there are a whole bunch of kids above and a whole bunch of kids below. The issue is whether every single kid is receiving the kind of care and concern and attention and high expectations and high standards with the support that is necessary for that kid to achieve.

If the commitment and the resources are there, you're going to see more blacks and whites moving into the middle class.

Mr. Finn: No, sir, you're not going to see the emergence of the middle class. You're going to see the limits of public policy at causing the emergence into the middle class. You're going to see better schools for these kids, and you will see improvement in scores, but the formula, if there is one, has got to include motivation and energy.

Public policy can eliminate barriers and provide resources, yes, but it cannot supplant the need for people to make something of themselves and organize themselves and their family and their children in such a way that their children end up better off than the parents.

That upward mobility is maintained in very substantial part by private action -- family, community, church-group, and neighborhood action.

Education Week: But how do you instill motivation and pass on values when the family is deteriorating as a social institution?

Mr. Finn: You start by recognizing that this is an extremely serious and intractable problem. It is a problem far, far larger and more pervasive than the education system, and further, alas, it isn't going to be solved within the education system. We should not get ourselves into another round of over-promising that the education system is going to solve problems that it is incompetent and powerless to solve. The kinds of social pathologies that are described in certain typical underclass literature are not within the power of schools, even good schools, to solve.

We're talking here about something that has been with us for a very long time. It's getting worse, affects many aspects of society, and has not proven susceptible to conventional public-policy solutions in the welfare, health, and education domains.

Indeed, there is one line of thought that says that these problems have been exacerbated by public-policy interventions, and that dependency has been created thereby.

Mr. Hodgkinson: That tells us what won't work. I've heard a great deal about why social programs don't work, despite the data that they do -- Head Start, for example. What is this Administration proposing that will work?

Mr. Hornbeck: I couldn't agree more that the problem of values is getting worse, and schools aren't going to solve it alone. But that doesn't fully address the issue.

The question in part is: Should the schools be any part of the solution? Should we continue to role of moral eunuch? Should we continue to act as if the value question is not part of the solution to those problems, when we have a group of younsters who are in our institutions, for better or for worse, six hours a day for 12 years?

If the answer is no, schools have no responsibility and all of that belongs to the private sector -- the church, the family, business -- then it is easy for us.

If the answer is yes, you bear part of the responsibility, then the question is: What part and what initiatives and what programs do we need to meet that responsibility?

At the moment, schools don't see instilling values as part of their agenda. Since the 1960's, they really have set that responsibility aside. They have approached issues of values in a relatively sick way. They say everybody's values are as good as everybody else's, and that is plain wrong. We are contributing to the problem rather than the solution by adopting that perspective.

Mr. McMurrin: Certainly the educational system is important to these poor children as they come through the schools and take their place in society. But we also need to assist their parents with jobs and with socioeconomic anemities that have to do more closely with the middle class.

I have sat in discussions of whether we have a choice to be segregated. We don't have a choice. When school enrollments in some states are 50 percent minority, they don't have a choice. When cities are 50 percent or more minority and metropolitan areas are 30 or 40 percent minority, they don't have a choice. People can fight it, they can delay it, and they can make it miserable for the minority children and their parents. But they can't stop it. It will just prolong the misery. We've got to come to our senses as a society and mainstream all of the minorities and give them equal access to all of the opportunities. Otherwise, we're facing problems in schools that we can't overcome.

Mr. Yzaguirre: For middle-class kids, it really doesn't make all that much difference what kind of school environment they have. They can go to bad schools but have enough protective and supporting things happening around them so that they will do okay. But for disadvantaged kids, the difference between a good school and a bad school makes all the difference in the world. So public policy and institutions have a differential impact on different populations.

ROUNDTABLE: PRESCRIPTIONS

'Who Bears the Responsibility?'

Education Week: ... Let's turn now to questions of long-term policy. Lee McMurrin has used the word "intervention." Are policy interventions called for in view of the emerging demographic realities? Who should do what and for what reasons?

Mr. Smith: The National Alliance of Black School Educators produced a report entitled "Saving the African-American Child."...

The report called for academic and cultural excellence, because one of the major causes of poor achievement of our children is a belief by teachers, communities, parents, and the children themselves that they are unworthy, that they don't have the capacity for high levels of achievement. And when this belief is pervasive among those who teach, those who administer, the parents, and the children, then it becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy.

... There is no question that the curriculum of the schools in the United States is a curriculum that places Europeans at an advantage and places other groups, particularly those who are at great risk -- blacks and Latinos and Native Americans -- at a disadvantage. The truth of their existence, their contributions historically, their contributions to this country today, simply are not present in the curriculum.

So when a child sees the reality of the outside -- the slums, the nonworking parents, the drug addiction -- and then goes into the school and sees no evidence there of any worthiness of his or her group, then it is not surprising that there is considerable disbelief by the child in himself and in his group.

But scholarship began in Africa. The first universities were in Africa. The academic disciplines began in Africa when scholars from Asia and Europe went to the universities in Sankore and Timbuktu and other places to learn. This simply is not known. Not only is it not known by black children, it is not known by white children either.

The revelation of what is true can make a difference in how all groups feel about themselves. Not only is it correcting the distortions of reality for minority children, but it also corrects the distortions for majority children, too, and this is terribly important.

When one-third of the American population are minorities, we have to think about the education of all our people in new ways.

Think of it in terms of polycultural democracy, which would posit that a child has the right to be educated in his or her own culture and still learn about the majority culture and still be respected. White children have that right. White children also have the right to know about Native Americans, and Latinos, about African Americans, because the world is increasingly narrowing and their being able to function in that world is going to be dependent upon their ability to communicate, to know about and to deal with other cultures.

Mr. McMurrin: The group within which the children identify is important, but I think the biggest problem we have at this point is the acceptance within the larger society.

Only by mainstreaming individuals within society in their education, housing, and employment. and by giving them equal access, equal opportunity can we solve these problems.

Mr. Hornbeck: ... Who has the responsibility for what in response to these issues?

The local, state, and federal levels have various responsibilities, and in the final analysis it is obvious that what goes on in the classroom and at the school level is going to be the key factor.

The question is how and where we get the leadership that will influence the greatest number of classrooms and schools across this country. For better or worse, that leadership is going to come at the state level.

If we are going to have equalization in resources, it is going to happen in the state context, although there needs to be a greater contribution to that at the federal level than there is right now.

If we are going to have substance as well as form in graduation requirements, and if we're going to have renewed curricular initiatives, that is largely going to happen at the state level.

Given the average size of local school systems and the character of central-office staffs, the resources aren't going to be there to do it.

It is going to be vital for states to support equity and access, principally under legal mandates at the federal level....

The state has a critical role to play addressing the teacher issues -- from certification to raising salaries. The action is going to be at the state level and so states need to be prepared to assume that responsibility....

Mr. McMurrin: ... It is difficult for some states to address the problems of urban centers all by themselves. Historically, when the core city became more metropolitan in the way it looked at itself, it became great. And when it lost that perspective, it declined. Areas need to see themselves as being metropolitan and plan in that way. Because large concentrations of poor minorities live in our core cities, we need to create a metropolitan perspective, so that everyone who lives in a region has something at stake in both the metropolitan area and the core city.

Mr. Smith: Parents have a considerable responsibility in addressing these issues. One is in helping to reinforce the positive things that go on in schools. They also have a responsibility to be informed and to use the political power that they do have to see to it that more positive things occur in schools, to see to it that state legislatures do appropriate more money for the kinds of resources that are necessary.

But the problem is that most of the parents of at-risk children are not themselves informed about what they ought to be doing. They haven't been energized, and that suggests another responsibility for schools.

If the schools want their cooperation, then school agencies must help to educate parents, to energize them, and to call upon them as partners for the school.

__Education Week:__ But how do you do that? You say the parents of these at-risk children are really at risk themselves. Many are illiterate. Many are unemployed. Many head single-parent families.

__Mr. Smith:__ ... You have to do it in formal ways. You have to come up with programs that assist them to find jobs, that improve their literacy level, that improve their political sense.

That can be threatening to schools.... But that is a necessary element in their participation as citizens. Formal programs have to be devised by schools that may, in fact, sometimes make those parents adversaries.

__Mr. McMurrin:__ Nor can parents do the job without others within this metropolitan area taking on these children as if they were their very own.

__Mr. Finn:__ That is an important point. ... It doesn't have to be only their own parents who take an interest in the well-being of individual children; a caring adult following principles of sound parenting plus all of the advice on what works can make a difference.

It can be a grandparent. It can be a neighbor. It can be a scout chief. It can be a guidance counselor. It can be a clergyman, It can be someone that adopts kids or takes responsibility for their education even though they aren't even any relation.

__Mr. Yzaguirre:__ ... How do you get poor people involved in the education of their kids? One thing we did was to legitimize the role of parents. The second thing we did was to -- through parent advisory committees, as a part of Head Start and other federally supported programs -- provide some resources for parent-training workshops, for meetings, for travel.... Not everything worked perfectly, but a number of parents got involved in the education of their kids. We began to demystify education a little bit, because one problem was that some poor people said, "We are uneducated and these professionals are educated, and they know a lot more than we do."

Occasionally, there were adversarial relationships built up, but in the long run it built more support for public education and more involvement among poor people.

__Mr. Finn:__ There is a need for private policies -- for the kinds of things that you can't mandate people to do, like care for their children and act responsibly toward those that they bring into the world....

Schools, and other institutions as well, need to project affirmatively, even aggressively, sound values and principles to everybody in them, kids especially. These need to reinforce the values and principles that kids get at home from their parents....

More of this is going to occur in the field of education at the state level....

__Mr. McMurrin:__ Our children and their parents who are in the city and are at risk need to quit hearing about why we shouldn't be affirmative in hiring, why we don't want them to live in our neighborhood, all of these negatives. We need to quit that. We need to be more positive about them and be more open and give more advantages to them.

There are two philosophies about education: One says that education follows the culture and can be no better than the people in the culture, and the other says that the schools should take leadership, should be better in every way than the society that they represent. We ought to have higher morals within the school. We ought to have better human relations within the school than we see in the society.

ROUNDTABLE DISCUSSION: PREDICTIONS

2001: 6 Views

Education Week: Where will we be in 15 years? Will the society be better of or worse off in terms of the problems we've been discussing?

Mr. McMurrin: Unless we face up to the problems we've discussed here today and directly address the needs of the large numbers of at-risk youngsters in America's major cities, we are going to be in a lot worse shape as a nation. And these children are going to be in a lot worse shape.

Mr. Hodgkinson: The average woman today is going to spend about the same number of years taking care of a dependent older person as she does taking care of a dependent child. The consequences of that are striking and we will need to balance the needs of youth against the needs of the rapidly increasing elderly population, which votes, and the 10-year-olds don't.

We are making wonderful progress in some schools. We are not making wonderful progress at the state level. We have passed an enormous number of bills, some 700 that deal with teachers alone. States can't legislate excellence.

But there are shining examples of individual schools doing just superbly against all odds. That basically comes from some home-grown conditions of local, dedicated people who make that happen.

Underneath all the subcultures, there is a potential for a common middle-class membership. I don't know of any common group that is against the values of hard work, of reward for the hard work, of the feeling that your children can do well, maybe even better than you if you're lucky, and that basically your life in the future is going to be as good, if not a little better, than it is at the present time. There is no culture I know for which that is an antithetical value.

So out of all that diversity can come this fundamental commonality, if we can retain the middle class in our country, whatever its ethnicity. But in job structure and income, the middle class is declining. Without a middle-class majority, we simply will not be the United States of America.

There is very little reason to think that minority younger people in the year 2010 are going to be willing to pay in perpetuity the retirement benefits of a large number of older whites. I don't think there is class war developing in the country, but it seems to me there's a possibility of a war between the information haves and the information have-nots. That is why the development of a black and Hispanic middle class is so important -- and the development of minority small businesses, and the 286 black mayors in the United States. Those are the beacons.

Fifteen years from now, the best are going to be better, and the worst are not going to be that much better off than they are today. I don't see much of a decline from where we are now, but as the range gets greater, the expectation level gets greater, and then the frustration gets worse.

Mr. Yzaguirre: I am an eternal optimist, so I think in 15 years things are going to be better. I am not sure, however, that I have the same kind of optimistic view for the next four years. There is much more of a negative feeling than we have experienced in many years. In the short run, I see a lot of problems. We are increasingly a polarized community and poverty is on the increase. The nation is going to face a lot more diversity and that is going to engender a lot of negative, know-nothing kinds of moods....

And so in the short run, I see an awful lot of problems. But the fact that we are talking about education as much as we are and the fact that for whatever reasons, whatever motivations, more and more people are concerned about education, leads me to believe that we are going to find not the solution, but a variety of solutions.

Mr. Hornbeck: ... We know what the problems are. We also know what the solutions are.

The question is whether we as a society have the imagination, the resources, and the will to apply to solutions we know will work to the problems we know exist. If we do, we will succeed as no society in human history has. If we don't, the consequences of disaster will be quite significant economically and politically for this country.

Which way that will be 15 years from now, I have no earthly idea.

Mr. Finn: We need the requisites that Dave Hornbeck has described at every level -- in the family and in the private sector.

I want to emphasize the distinction between diversity -- which is not a bad thing, and which we accommodate in various ways -- and the underclass problem, which is a grave and intractable one that I don't think we can deal with entirely within the bounds of education. Nor can we deal with it very successfully by further elaborating the conventional welfare-state apparatus. This is what makes it so intractable.

As far as education can deal with underclass issues, it deals with them through a mixture of sanely applied high standards for everyone, character enhancement and ethical formation, and a radical restructuring of the delivery system for public education in this country, which I think will cause it to work a lot better for a lot of people -- including underclass kids.

Mr. Smith: We have an opportunity to set an international and historical example of being able to accept, respect, and educate our total diversity. We have that opportunity. I don't think we have the will to do it -- not yet. I am not sure we ever will.

The will to respect, educate, and liberate all of our people would require, first, recognition that we oppress minorities in this country educationally, politically, and socially. It is a very deep, explosive, and painful issue. Only some kind of critical emergency could force us to recognize and explore that....

We seem to respond, not because we recognize that it is the humane thing to do, but because we face a crisis. And I think all the elements of crisis are here now.

The only point at which we will begin to recognize the oppression and exploitation of minorities in this country and be forced to do something about it, in the schools in particular, is when we see ourselves in such a dread situation that we think the entire nation's welfare is in the balance.

I believe it will be. I depends upon how soon it is recognized.

ATTACHMENT VIII

EMPLOYMENT POLICIES: LOOKING TO THE YEAR 2000 (HIGHLIGHTS)*

PART 1: THE DEMOGRAPHIC AND ECONOMIC SETTING

Workforce Projections

The number of youth entering the workforce will decrease as the number of minorities as a percentage of the youth workforce increases.

○ The number of 16-24 year old labor force participants will decline between now and 1995....
○ From 1982 to 1995, the black labor force will grow at almost twice the white rate.

The number of high school dropouts will increase, rising above the one million children who now drop out of school each year.

○ One of every four ninth graders will not graduate from high school. For minorities and the poor, the rates are higher.
○ The drive for renewed excellence in public education is expected to increase the number of dropouts if special attention is not paid to this group.

Youth unemployment is expected to increase, ... largely attributed to continued ineffective vocational counseling and job placement and lack of basic literacy skills of youth, particularly minorities.

○ Black male teenagers with work experience are expected to continue to decline in number.... Longitudinal research shows that joblessness during youth has a long-term harmful effect on success in the labor market.

Today 23 million adults are considered functionally illiterate, and these numbers are expected to worsen due to an increase of minority youth, who historically have had greater functional illiteracy rates....

Teenage pregnancy will become more common than ever. Nearly half of all black females are pregnant by age 20. White teen pregnancy rates are also soaring. Half of these teen age mothers will never complete high school.

The incidence of female headed households will continue to increase, contributing significantly to rapid increases in the population on welfare, particularly among minorities....

Women will account for two-thirds of the labor force growth during the 1980's and 1990's....

○ Rapid growth in female headed households has and will continue to contribute to increases in the numbers of women who want to work.
○ Many women, employed in low wage jobs, will have limited resources for child care.

Two working parent families will become more common, increasing the demand for child care during working hours.

Prime age workers (25 to 54 years of age) will account for about 75 percent of the 1995 workforce, up from 64 percent in 1982.

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*National Alliance of Business, Employment Policies: Looking to the Year 2000. Washington, D.C., 1986.

- Over 90 percent of those who will be working in 1990 and 75 percent of those who will be working in the year 2000 are already in the workforce.

The prospects for permanent dislocation of workers are expected to increase. An estimated 1.5 million workers are already permanently displaced, their skills obsolete due to a continuing shift from manufacturing to high technology and service industries and to international competition....

The population 55 and over will increase. At the same time, the current trend of early retirement is expected to continue.

Workers with critical technical skills will be retiring at an increasingly rapid rate....

Illegal immigration will be an increasingly significant factor in the competition for entry level jobs....

The Changing Workplace

The kinds of jobs in the workplace are changing.

- During the late 1970's and early 1980's, 20 million new jobs were created; only 5 percent were in manufacturing while 90 percent were in the service and information industries.
- By the end of the century, an estimated 5 to 15 million manufacturing jobs will be restructured. An equal number of service jobs will probably become obsolete.... Figures projected for the rest of the century for the entire economy point to disruptions in the labor market many times more severe than previously.

The nature of work will change....

- Changes in the nature of existing jobs or creation of new jobs will likely require higher levels of skills. Young workers, immigrants (including undocumented workers) and others seeking entry level jobs will therefore face more intense competition for fewer unskilled and semiskilled jobs.
- By 1990, an estimated three out of four jobs will require some education or technical training beyond high school. (The number of jobs requiring college degrees is not expected to change significantly.)
- Computer skills will comprise only a small part of total skill requirements, but basic academic skills, problem solving, and interpersonal skills will be increasingly important.
- More jobs will be decentralized. Computer terminals permit instant access and communication from various locations....
- There will be fewer natural career ladders. ... It will ... become more difficult to work up the ranks through informal on-the-job training. More formalized training may be necessary.
- Jobs that rely on computer based information will offer greater mobility for workers across industries....

Smaller companies are expected to contribute substantially to new job opportunities. These smaller employers often lack the resources for formal training programs compared to larger employers....

Low skill jobs associated with manufacturing will be moving to the suburbs, away from their traditional location in the central cities. Given existing transportation systems, this will leave unskilled workers in the cities unable to reach these sources of employment.

The 1990's will see an unusually large concentration of prime age workers (25 to 44 years of age) leading to intense competition for higher level jobs and greater interest in lateral job opportunities to increase job satisfaction.

The large numbers of prime age female workers in the workforce will require increased child care facilities, new or more flexible benefit packages, and greater flexibility in working hours.

While small businesses can be expected to account for the majority of new jobs, it is particularly difficult for them to be established in predominantly minority, depressed, or center city areas because they are stymied by the unavailability of investment capital from commercial banks....

Companies will find that basic skill deficiencies (reading, writing, speaking/listening, math) of employees will add to their costs not only through greater remediation expenses but also through lower productivity, higher supervisory time and poorer product quality.

Other Relevant Factors To Consider

On the Negative Side

Basic public data that matches available jobs with available workers is incomplete. Meanwhile, budget cuts for data collection programs preclude significant improvements in our collection of labor market information.

Public sector training facilities and equipment are often obsolete and worn out, and prospects for improvement are limited by budget cuts. Moreover, such equipment is often under utilized, used by youth during the day, for example, but not available for adult retraining at night.

On the Positive Side

... Overall, the current labor force is more highly educated than ever before. It can learn new skills quickly and is more willing than in the past to relocate for employment.

The number of manufacturing jobs increased by almost 3 million in the last 25 years although the percentage of jobs in manufacturing has declined and the trend is expected to continue....

Employers already spend an estimated $30 billion on formal job training and retraining....

The American economy is expected to grow over the next 10 to 15 years. Latest BLS figures indicate that about 16 million new jobs will be created between 1984 and 1995. During the same time, the labor force is expected to increase by about 15 million. These figures ... mean that the workforce will not be adequately prepared to perform the newly created jobs without a more concerted effort by all elements in the public and private sectors.

PART 2: IMPLICATIONS FOR PRODUCTIVITY

- More jobs will require not only basic skills but also problem solving, analytical and communicating skills, yet a growing percentage of the projected new labor force entrants are expected to lack these skills.
- Change will be the hallmark of the workplace, but many smaller businesses are too small to provide formal on site training, while many training facilities they might use are out of date; at the same time, most of the workforce of the late 90's ... is already working and will need retraining.

- Dislocation can be expected, several magnitudes larger than we have known in the past....
- More than ever both youth and adults will need better information on available jobs and a better understanding of their aptitudes...

If nothing is done to address these problems, serious repercussions are likely.

Employers will find it difficult to fill entry level jobs. Finding large numbers of youth unmotivated and under educated, business might appeal for increases in immigration or out-source work to other countries. If those options are not feasible, employer costs for remedial training and hiring young people would increase substantially, reducing business' competitiveness in the world market. And where opportunities to use outside labor increase, we can expect large segments of our population to be left out, unable to obtain work. The effects to society of this growing underclass are obvious -- increases in welfare, crime, and unrest.

Prime age workers will become less productive. The nature of the jobs of most current workers will change in the coming decade. If employers have not anticipated or prepared workers for these changes, job losses may occur; certainly, there will be inefficiencies in operation.... An increasing number of workers, who may need or want to change careers to increase job satisfaction or stability, may find that public and private institutions are unable to provide proper guidance about the labor market or offer appropriate training. At best this will result in losses in productivity; at worst it will lead to long-term dislocation.

...It is imperative that all players in the economy -- business, a spectrum of agencies at all levels of government, training and education institutions, labor, and community agencies -- work together in patnership to meet the labor market challenges of the future.

Specific Implications to Consider

... Private employers must see training as essential to their productivity and competitiveness. Training is a critical part of their business....

School systems must stress basic reading, writing and arithmetic skills and the development of problem solving, communicating, and teamwork skills. Moreover, they must develop programs that encourage youth to stay in school....

Business, public training institutions, school systems, private training institutions, and labor must work in partnership to ensure minimal duplication in the provision of training. Each has important roles to play.

More formalized training will be needed to respond to rapid technological change, international competition, and job restructuring.

Business needs to provide or finance the training and retraining its employees need. Smaller businesses will often be unable to provide training, but they must be able to use other institutions in the community to meet their needs, and these agencies must be flexible enough to respond.

In addition, public agencies, including the schools, will need to play a major role in providing the training necessary for new labor force entrants and the unemployed, segments of the population that business cannot be expected to serve.

The public must be made aware that education, training and retraining are a vital part of working life. Training must be viewed as a lifelong process....

The workforce will require better labor market information and improved counseling, testing, and assessment services.

> These activities will take on increasing importance for both youth and adults. Youth must be provided information on job opportunities as early as junior high so they can begin to explore occupations. Equally as important, they need sound advice based on aptitude tests and other assessment tools concerning those job areas for which they may be best suited....
>
> Many more adult workers than ever before will find themselves in obsolete jobs and must be channeled effectively to new careers.... This will place greater demands on training, testing, counseling and labor market information.

Special efforts will be needed to assist long-term displaced workers.

> Even with increased retraining opportunities, there will continue to be large numbers of workers who will have particular problems reentering the workforce....
>
> Dislocated workers will need income maintenance while they reorder their lives but there should be incentives to encourage them to move quickly to make adjustments.

Workers, 55 and over, will be critical in certain occupational areas and should be encouraged to remain employed....

Welfare recipients should be encouraged to enter the labor market. Programs designed to provide them education, training, and social services are essential.

> Many welfare recipients are willing to work but lack the requisite job seeking skills and basic and technical skills necessary to obtain employment....

The increase participation of women in the labor force will require improvements in the provision and level of child care....

> Child care facilities can ... be particularly beneficial for children from more disadvantaged surroundings.

An influx of undocumented workers will reduce the number of jobs available for American citizens and legal immigrants.

> Most illegal immigrants take jobs in entry level positions requiring limited basic education and skills -- jobs that form the basis of part time work experiences for youth and initial full time work for youth and adults with limited skills. With the number of these jobs declining, not only will it be increasingly difficult for the nation's citizens and legal immigrants to enter the labor market but also the workplace will be less able to absorb the new illegal workers.

Public transportation patterns from the cities to surrounding suburbs should be improved.

> Low skill level jobs have increasingly shifted from the cities to the suburbs..., while large numbers of potential workers remain within the cities....

Public/private partnerships will be needed to create jobs in communities where business would not normally locate and where there is high unemployment....

No one agency, firm, or sector in a community has all the resources to create jobs in distressed areas, so all must work together. The business community can identify training needs and contribute resources; education and training institutions can provide suitable training; community and economic development agencies can offer incentives and special investment opportunities; and community organizations can enlist volunteers and assist in economic development efforts.

PART 3:

THE FUTURE CHALLENGE IN LABOR MARKET POLICY: GUIDANCE FOR ACTION

In order to meet the challenges of the next 15 years, our nation's employment policy must be directed to the entire workforce and involve all sectors -- business; federal, state and local governments; training and education institutions; labor; and community organizations.

Employment policy must encompass not only the traditional public training programs but also our public education systems, training provided by business, training sponsored by labor, economic development programs, labor market information systems, counseling, testing and assessment programs, the labor exchange system and income maintenance systems.

To prepare for the realities of the year 2000, a new employment policy must reexamine how programs, activities, or systems are currently defined and determine how they should be reordered, revised, or eliminated. It should further identify what additional initiatives are needed. In the end, these programs, activities or systems should form a comprehensive strategy that takes advantage of the relative strengths of each sector and avoids overlap.

... Some of the state job training coordinating councils under JTPA have found 40 to 60 distinct training programs in their states. Current training and education programs are disjointed, often overlapping and duplicating each other.

The specific programs and systems that should be provided by the federal, state and local levels of government and the roles and responsibilites of the private sector and others will need to be debated and discussed carefully. But, it is important to begin now so that action can be taken as soon as possible....

Themes Concerning Governance

The public and private sectors must work together in partnership at all levels.

State. There should be a board or council at the state level, similar to the state council under JTPA but with more authority, that would be responsible for coordinating all training, education, economic development and placement activities in the state. State funds are likely to be the predominant source of funding for all of these programs, and these councils should set goals and establish criteria for how the state and federal programs should be interrelated, assure these criteria are met through the plan review process, and monitor operations. In addition, state boards should evaluate programs to determine whether the needs of the population are being met.

Local. A board or council at the local level, like the private industry councils under JTPA, should be considered to oversee all training, education, economic development and placement activities at the local level, regardless of funding sources. Within the parameters set forth by the state, these boards would coordinate planning for human resource programs, set local standards and oversee the programs to assure that they are functioning as planned. Membership would be cross cutting, including business people; government elected officials and representatives of training, education, economic development, welfare and labor exchange agencies; labor; and community groups.

To the extent possible, boards should cover entire labor market areas. Where this is not possible, local boards in a labor market area should cooperate so that planning is consistent and services are coordinated....

States should have the primary responsibility for addressing the needs of their citizens for job training, education, economic development, welfare and job placement.

> States should provide the financing for programs to meet the needs of their citizens except in those instances in which the needs are severe and require resources in excess of those that can be reasonably expected at the state level. States should set goals and coordinating criteria for their own programs and should have the flexibility, within broad parameters, to do so for federal programs. States should set performance standards and hold local programs accountable for use of funds. They should also evaluate programs to assure effective coordination and to determine areas of need.

The local level should have maximum flexibility in designing and operating programs. The local level should identify priorities and design programs accordingly.

> The local level should be the focus for change and reform based on local conditions. There should be maximum flexibility to meet local needs. While states should have the primary burden for financing programs, local governments should also have the authority to raise funds and make funding decisions.

The federal government should articulate national employment policies and facilitate state and local activities to carry out these policies. Federal funds should supplement state and local resources to meet special needs....

> While the design of specific approaches should occur at the local level to meet local conditions, the federal government should provide technical assistance and should actively disseminate information among the state and local levels to assure the cross-fertilization of ideas.

> The federal government should also provide resources targeted to poorer states and local areas where needs are greatest....

Themes Concerning Operations

Business must plan strategically and assume major responsibility for the training and retraining of its own workers at all levels -- from entry to management -- and must develop new approaches to maintain the productivity and commitment of its workforce....

Business has an important role to play beyond its in-house training responsibilities to assure the quality of publicly funded education and training institutions.

> Schools produce the labor force of business. Public schools must be improved so that growing numbers of students graduate with credentials that are reliable. Business has important responsibilities in three significant areas. It can help upgrade the facilities of the schools, assure that skill training programs meet business needs, and relate the basic academic school curriculum to the world of work. These efforts will contribute to motivating youth in their school work and to assuring them of a job after graduation.

> Business should serve on local school boards; donate equipment; lend staff to help design curriculum, teach, and assist in school management where needed; provide speakers; participate in teacher and counselor improvement programs, including exposure to the business world; and provide work experience sites....

> By participating on local private industry councils or similar boards, business can serve as a catalyst to bring agencies together and assure education and training efforts are coordinated and complement one another.

The education system has responsibility not only for developing basic skills but also for providing greater student awareness of the workplace and career choices.

> ... School curricula should begin in elementary school to relate basic academic knowledge to the working world. Beginning at the junior high and middle level schools, much greater emphasis on information about work is needed. It is an ideal time to provide counseling and special courses that can relate a student's interests, aptitudes and skills to the labor market.
>
> By high school, students should also have the opportunity to gain actual work experience through cooperative education or other work study programs. For those students who will be entering the job market immediately after high school, schools should arrange for students to receive accurate and complete labor market information....

Government should offer incentives to business to devote greater resources to the education, training and retraining of its workers.

> Both business and society benefit from a well trained workforce that operates at high efficiency. While the primary responsibility for educating, training and retraining its workforce should rest with business, government should encourage efforts by offering incentives to make these activities more financially attractive to business.
>
> ... These include tax credits, the establishment of a block investment credit for training expenses and the application of incentives similar to those offered to business for payment of health premiums....

The public and private sectors at the state level are primarily responsible for economic development. Federal funds should be concentrated in areas of high unemployment and linked to job training efforts for the structurally unemployed....

Business and government should assist workers in securing child care and in providing working conditions sensitive to the needs of working parents. A national policy on child care is needed to identify the most appropriate responsibilities for the different levels of government....

> Since many needing child care, such as single heads of families, have lower incomes, governments must respond. Options include tax incentives for business investment and income based voucher programs for parents....

Public service employment should be limited to situations in which (1) other efforts to secure an unsubsidized job for the individual have failed and (2) the subsidized job will be provided for a limited time only, after which additional job search and training assistance will be provided to the individual.

> States should be the primary source for public service employment programs so they can be linked closely to other state programs....

Welfare programs should include components designed to move the able-bodied into work. Incentivies, rather than disincentives, to work for those on welfare should be implemented.

> While training and employment programs for welfare recipients will require additional funds, states and cities that have implemented these programs have begun to find that the investment pays off....

The government should take much stronger and more effective actions to control the entry of undocumented workers, and employers should assist in this control effort by helping to ensure that jobs are filled by American citizens and others who are legally entitled to work....

Efforts to provide resources outside the normal annual appropriations process should be examined as possible means for supporting job training and other employment related programs.

> ... These include: tax incentives for training employees, employer/employee contributions to training trust funds, revolving loan funds for individuals interested in training, and redirection of public pension funds for economic development investments....

Individuals should have flexibility to choose services and training that reflect occupational interests.

> ... [W]orker choice requires guidance and the provision of timely labor market information. While programs should be "provider neutral," there must be quality control to assure that programs provide skills that are needed in the labor market and meet standards of performance.

PART 4: FACT SHEET

Youth Unemployment

Despite favorable demographic trends, high unemployment rates persist for youth. High dropout rates, insufficient work experience, and rising poverty rates represent formidable obstacles to reducing this problem.

> In addition to the substantial problem with youth unemployment, there is also considerable youth underemployment. In 1985, 156,000 teenagers wanted work but thought they couldn't find any. Another 781,000 wanted full-time jobs, but had to settle for part time. Adding these to the 1,468,000 unemployed youth in 1985 gives us around 2.4 million youth whose needs are presently not being met in the labor market. This group represents around one-sixth of the entire youth (16-19) population.
>
> The labor market difficulties of black male youth are disproportionately greater than those of whites. Only a little more than half of young black males (16-19) are in the labor force; less than a third of them are employed. One-quarter of all young black males has never held a job at all. The lack of work experience among young black males poses a substantial barrier to employment.
>
> The school dropout rate among youth has been growing for more then a decade. Last year, about 700,000 students dropped out of school, while another 300,000 were chronically absent. Children in poverty are 3-4 times more likely to drop out than children from more affluent families. The minority dropout rate is twice as high as that for whites. In large public school districts in our major cities, where the great majority of students come from poor families, dropout rates frequently exceed 40 percent.
>
> Children from families with incomes below the poverty level are one-third less likely to graduate from high school than their more affluent peers, and they are less than half as likely to complete at least one year of college. Only 42.6 percent of black and 52.8 percent of white 18-21 year olds from poor families in 1983 had earned high school diplomas.
>
> A growing number of children live in poverty. In 1975, 16.8 percent of all children lived in families with incomes below the poverty line. By last year, this figure had risen to 21.0 percent. Minority children suffer a far higher poverty rate. In 1984, 46.2 percent of black children and 38.7 percent of Hispanic children were poor, compared to 16.1 percent of white children. Children living in female-headed, single-parent families suffer a much higher rate (54 percent in 1984) than other children (12.5 percent).

Adult Illiteracy

Deficiencies in basic skills are not limited to youth. Rising literacy standards in the workplace are leaving many employed adults behind. Moreover, unemployed adults who lack basic are finding it more difficult to obtain employment.

> More than 23 million adults in the U.S. are functional illiterates, who are unable to read, write, or compute at a level that enables them to perform simple tasks such as completing a job application or passing a driver's test. Another 47 million adults are borderline illiterates - able to function but not proficiently.
>
> Among adults, 16 percent of whites, 44 percent of blacks, and 56 percent of Hispanics are either total, functional, or marginal nonreaders. Many included in this category were born outside the United States. Seventy percent of native English-speaking adult illiterates did not finish high school.
>
> Each year, an estimated 2.3 million people are added to the ranks of the functionally illiterate: 1 million teenagers who leave school without elementary skills and 1.3 million non-English speaking arrivals.
>
> An estimated 15 million employed adults are considered functionally illiterate. Literacy standards are higher today than they were ten years ago. In the face of these changing standards, 11 percent of today's managerial and professional workers functionally illiterate, as are 30 percent of semi-skilled and unskilled workers.
>
> A national survey of employers found that over half of the responding companies cited problems in grammar, spelling, punctuation, and mathematics across a wide range of employees. Over two-thirds noted that basic skills deficiencies limited the company's ability to promote employees, both high school graduates and nongraduates.
>
> Illiteracy is a major barrier to reemployment. An estimated 50 to 75 percent of the unemployed in 1982 lacked the basic skills of communication, reading, comprehending, and computing that would enable employers to train them for emerging job opportunities.

Teenage Pregnancy

An important element in both school dropouts and youth employment difficulties is teenage pregnancy. A problem for both teenage mothers and fathers, adolescent parenthood removes a growing number of teenagers from mainstream education and employment systems, greatly increasing their chances of falling into or remaining in poverty.

> More than 1 million teenagers become pregnant each year. Twelve percent of teenage girls already have become mothers.
>
> In 1983, 54 percent of all teen births were to unmarried mothers, compared to 14 percent in 1950. This trend, coupled with rising divorce rates among teens who do marry, means that large numbers of women are both single and mothers. Half of all teenage mothers are raising their children as single parents.
>
> The annual rate of teenage pregnancies in the U.S. -- one in ten -- is almost twice that found in France, England, and Canada. It is seven times that of the Netherlands.

Minority teens account for 27 percent of the adolescent population, about 50 percent of poor adolescents, and about 40 percent of the teenage women who give births.

Adolescent parenthood interrupts education and complicates employment. Forty-three percent of the young women who drop out of school do so because of pregnancy or marriage. Half of all teenage mothers drop out of school and never return. Teens who become fathers are about 40 percent less likely to graduate from high school, compared to those who did not.

Even with support from their families, teenage parents are a distressed group. Two-thirds of all teen workers could not earn wages in 1984 sufficient to bring an intact, one-income family with a child out of poverty. Three-quarters of all single mothers under 25 live in poverty.

Welfare and Work

Persons receiving AFDC benefits face numerous obstacles to employment. Since the vast majority of adult AFDC recipients are mothers with young children, child care services are essential. Inadequate education, insufficient training, and lack of work experience are major barriers to obtaining productive jobs.

In 1984 (most recent data available), 10.8 million persons were receiving AFDC. Nearly 66 percent were children, and most of the remainder (91 percent) were mothers.

The average AFDC family in 1979 received aid for 2.1 children, compared with 2.2 in 1977, and 3.0 in 1969. Consequently, the average number of children in AFDC families does not differ much from the general population. Approximately 60 percent of AFDC families have children under age 6. Eighty-three percent have at least one child under 12. Consequently, lack of adequate child care can be a substantial barrier to employment for this group.

The total number of recipients in the average AFDC family has fallen from 4.1 in 1969 to 3.2 in 1977 and to 3.0 in 1979. This steady decline reflects both the decrease in number of children and the rise in single-parent, female-headed households.

The median age of AFDC mothers dropped sharply from 33.1 in 1969 to 28.7 in 1979. More than half of AFDC mothers are under age 30. Seven percent were teenagers in 1979. That number has undoubtedly increased since then.

Of those for whom the education level was known, around 42 percent of AFDC mothers were high school graduates in 1979. This represents a substantial increase from 33 percent in 1973. (NOTE: Part of the increase may be due to nonreporting by recipients with less than a high school education.) Since 1979 the rise in teenage mothers on AFDC, who presumably dropped out of school, may have lowered this figure.

In 1983 only 2.2 percent of AFDC mothers were in school, down from 3.2 in 1977.

In 1982, 61 percent of WIN clients scored below the 8th and 9th grade level in math, and 44 percent scored below that level in reading competency.

Nearly one-fourth of AFDC mothers have never been employed. Most of those who have, previously worked in occupations offering little skill training.

Half of all AFDC mothers receive benefits for less than two years, 17 percent draw benefits for at least eight years. This latter group comprises one half of the caseload at any one time, and accounts for over one half of the program costs.

Displaced Workers

A subset of the unemployed, displaced workers received considerable attention in the early 1980s as a recessionary economy and stiff international competition wracked manufacturing industries. Despite economic recovery, however, the problem persists. Growing foreign competition, new technologies, and changing skill requirements continue to leave large numbers of workers behind.

> Between 1979 and 1984, 11.5 million U.S. workers lost their jobs as a result plant shutdowns or relocations, technological improvements, or shrinking output. Of these 11.5 million workers, 5.1 million had been employed in the same job for 3 years, and were officially counted as displaced by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS).
>
> The problem of displaced workers persists despite economic recovery. In 1984, 1.3 million displaced workers were still unemployed. Another 730,000 had dropped out of the labor force and were no longer counted as unemployed.
>
> Displaced workers are typically white males of prime working age with a steady work history in a blue-collar job in the Midwest or Northeast. However, one-third are women, 12 percent are black, and 18 percent are over 55.
>
> Less-skilled are less-educated workers are more likely to be displaced and are more likely to have trouble finding a new job. Perhaps 20 percent lack basic skills and require remedial education.
>
> Machine operators, assemblers, and repairers comprised 22 percent of workers displaced between 1979 and 1984, although these occupations account for only 7.5 percent of the workforce. Professional, executive, administrative, and managerial workers, technicians, salespeople, and service workers were less likely to be displaced and were more likely to find replacement jobs.
>
> Nearly half the displaced workers were from manufacturing industries, although manufacturing employs less than 20 percent of the work force.
>
> The costs of displacement do no end with reemployment. Of those who found new jobs, at least half took cuts in earnings. Moreover, health and pension benefits generally suffered.

Immigration

The wild card in any projection of labor force growth in the coming decade is immigration. Legal immigration levels of slightly over half a million may account for one-quarter of the nation's population growth. However, illegal immigration is difficult to predict and may increase despite legislative reforms. Foreign-born workers could block entry into the workforce by many of the nation's youth and adult workers.

> In recent years, legal immigration into the U.S. has been about 550,000 people per year. At this rate, immigrants account for around 20 percent of the annual growth in the U.S. population. If legal immigration continues at the same rate, and growth in the resident population continues to slow, the foreign born will account for an increasing share of annual population growth during the next decade.
>
> Estimates of illegal immigration vary widely. The Census Bureau estimates that 100,000 to 300,000 undocumented settlers enter the country each year. However, these numbers reflect only those individuals willing to report their legal status to government enumerators. Apprehensions of illegal immigrants by the INS reached 1.3 million in 1985. Since this undoubtedly represents only a fraction of the total number, actual levels of illegal immigration are likely to be considerably

higher than official estimates.

Newly arrived foreign-born residents are younger on average than native-born Americans. Illegal immigrants are younger still.

The foreign born have larger families, higher marriage rates, and lower divorce rates than the native born. These characteristics, combined with the younger age profile, will lead to faster growth among the immigrant population.

Educational levels are varied for legal immigrants. A significant number have little education. Among those 25 years of age and older who entered the country between 1970 and 1980, 13 percent completed fewer than 5 years of school, compared to 3 percent of the native born. In contrast, 22 percent of recent arrivals had completed 4 or more years of college, compared to 16 percent of the native born. Illegal immigrants tend to have little formal education. Thus, education, as well as language, may be a substantial barrier to employment among this growing population.

Legal immigrants are concentrated in a few states. More than half live in California, New York, and Texas. Ten states account for 80 percent of the total immigrant population; no other states have more than two percent of the total. The vast majority live in metropolitan areas. Illegal immigrants tend to locate in the same areas as the legal immigrant population; high concentrations of immigrants tend to increase competition for jobs between immigrant groups and between immigrants and unskilled native-born workers.

ATTACHMENT IX

RECONNECTING YOUTH: THE NEXT STAGE OF REFORM

(HIGHLIGHTS)*

FOREWORD

The success of school reform across the nation has caused many of us to focus on a new set of problems. We recognize that school reforms cannot help young people who are not in school, and that more rigorous curricula might discourage some students and cause them to drop out of school. We now must move to meet the needs of those who, despite or because of school reform, are at greater risk of being lost to society as productive individuals.

We also must recognize our responsibility to teach students the virtues of civic responsibility that are essential to our survival as a democracy. School reform has not dealt with this issue, and perhaps cannot. But either within the classroom or beyond it, we must find ways to teach the next generations the civic virtues that have sustained American democracy for two centuries....

THE PROBLEM

The problem, simply stated, is this: a growing proportion of our young people are not making successful transitions to productive adult lives. They are paying a heavy price. We, as a society, are paying a heavy price. In the years ahead, the costs are going to get higher.

... Within that shrinking labor pool is a growing pool of "at-risk" young men and women: people in their teens and early twenties who *could* become productive citizens but most likely will not unless something out of the ordinary happens. They have the intelligence to succeed, but they lack important skills, family support, discipline and the motivation to make it. An unconscionably disproportionate number of them are poor, Black and Hispanic youth.

... Increasingly, the private sector will find itself teaching them remedial reading, writing and mathematics....

Our choices are clear. We can do nothing to reduce the numbers of youth disconnecting from school, work and the values and benefits they confer....

It would be wiser, and far less costly, to act now. A number of factors suggest that the time is ripe:

- *Successful public, private and collaborative programs for turning those young people around exist....*
- *Education reform is well under way* in every state. This momentum for change can be used to move reform into a more comprehensive phase in which the problems of at-risk youth can be more directly addressed.
- *Business and industry are restructuring* in response to a profound transformation in the world economy. That "how-to" can be shared with the schools and brought to bear on youth problems.

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* *Business Advisory Commission, Reconnecting Youth: The Next Stage of Reform. Education Commission of the States, Denver, CO., October 1985.*

- Interest in public service for youth is high and growing. State, local and national service opportunities hold great potential for harnessing the energies of young people, developing their confidence and skills, and building bridges to their further education and steady employment.

- *New institutional forms, combining public and private interests, are being developed....*

Who Is At Risk?

At-risk youth are young people who face uncertain futures as workers and citizens. At stake is whether they will move into productive adult lives or fall into patterns of chronic failure that deepen their alienation and dependency upon the welfare system.

Three categories of youth are of major concern:

- **The alienated.** These young people are uninterested in or dissatisfied with the values represented by school and work. ... [M]ost alienated students come from the middle classes. Nor is alienation an urban problem; alienated students are everywhere.

- **The disadvantaged and alienated.** These young people ... have, in addition, problems associated with being economically disadvantaged. A disproportionate share of these young people are minorities.... Most of them lack basic social and academic skills. Most lack family support, useful networks and self-esteem. All could make strong contributions to their communities and lead productive adult lives if they got the right help at the right time.

- **The disadvantaged.** These young people have family support and motivation to succeed, but they suffer from various effects of economic deprivation and racial discrimination.

... It is not unreasonable, ... to believe that all three of the above groups constitute 10% to 15% of the 16- to 19-year-old age group, nationally. In major cities, it is not unreasonable to estimate that half the high school population is at risk. We are talking about, by conservative estimate, 1,250,000 White, 750,000 Black and 375,000 Hispanic 16- to 19-year-olds at risk. Addressing this issue ... is an urgent task central to the country's further economic and social development....

This is a report from members of the business community to members of the education and state policy communities. Its primary message is that we have a common problem, we must address it together and we must address it now.

Disconnecting From School

About 700,000 students dropped out of school last year and another 300,000 were chronic truants....

Rates are much higher for minorities and the poor....

The problem is not just a minority problem or an urban problem; it is widespread.... Even if the rates for all groups were to stabilize, the situation would be worse than it used to be: our standards for schools and students are getting higher. The bottom rung of the "ladder of success" may be moving out of some students' reach....

... Most ... will drift along in a limbo that involves neither school nor promising work.

Two-thirds of the students we are concerned about drop out because they have given up on the school as a vehicle for their success. They do not believe it will work for them because it hasn't worked for them all their lives.... In disconnecting from school, these teens disconnect from the values and ideals the schools embody and promote....

Experienced teachers and administrators can predict which students will most likely drop out even when the students are in the primary grades.... Disconnection is not a tragedy because it happens; it is a tragedy because many people saw it coming for years and did nothing about it.

Ironically, some of the recent recommendations for improving schools will not touch the at-risk students or will affect them adversely.... We favor higher standards. We think at-risk students can meet them with the right kind of help. But, unless schools can take special measures to keep "on-the-edge" students from going over the edge, we can expect dropout rates to rise.

Disconnected From Work

Unemployment is not evenly distributed across the population.... In part, the high minority unemployment rates reflect the fact that minorities are often concentrated in areas where there are fewer jobs. In part, they reflect the fact that higher proportions of minority youth are under-skilled. In part, the rates reflect various kinds of discrimination and lack of access to job information and contacts....

There are several ways young people can be disconnected from work. One of them is physical: they may not live where there are sufficient jobs.

... Some youth, particularly minorities, are trapped in jobs that offer low pay, minimal or no fringe benefits and little chance for advancement....

A third kind of disconnection happens when young people lack the basic skills to do the available jobs. The schools bear primary responsibility for that. They must insure that students can read, write, handle basic mathematics and solve problems.

Many alienated youth ... are not very interested in work. They show little ambition on the job.... It may be that the most important contribution of school for these youth is not the academic skills and knowledge students acquire, but the habits and values that schools also impart to youth. Schools must become better at instilling in students a sense of responsibility, self-discipline, reliability and a capacity for working harmoniously with others.

Broader Disconnections

Dropping out and unemployment ... are also symptoms of underlying problems with the nation's integrative systems. Other symptoms also suggest that traditional American ways of integrating generations and ethnic groups into the mainstream are under stress:

- Teenage pregnancy and childbirth rates have grown for all teens, regardless of ethnicity and socioeconomic status.... Most of these teenagers do not marry.
- Arrests of people under 18 for drug abuse increased....
- Young people under age 21 account for more than half of all arrests for serious crimes....
- The homicide rate for ... teens increased....
- Death by suicide among teenagers increased for all groups.... A teenager commits suicide every 90 minutes.

Increases in youth suicide, crime, drug use and pregnancy are independent phenomena with their own origins...., but these are all signs of alienation and disconnection. All suggest that family, community, school and other agencies of socialization and integration are not working as they once were.

Certainly, there is evidence that the American family is changing....

We do not know all of the consequences of growing up in single-parent families. However, research does confirm that various indicators of disconnection, such as dropping out, truancy, delinquency and poor academic performance, are linked to family structure and family education support variables....

Recent trends in adolescent pregnancy and parenthood are of particular concern.... When coupled with the increasing tendency for teenagers to raise their own children, the result is an increasing number of single teenage parents.... Many of these young mothers do not return to school. Teen parents who drop out place their children at risk.

We believe that schools, social service agencies, [religious organizations,] businesses and community service organizations must step in to address the needs of alienated youth and mitigate the unanticipated consequences of changing family structure. Since schools have been a most powerful public integrative system, schools are a good place to start. Since jobs for young people are powerful private-sector integrators, changes should be made in the kinds of jobs young people get and their relation to later jobs....

Reconnecting Our Youth

... Many youth are not well served by the traditional education structure. Others find the transition into the world of work exceedingly difficult.... Students who drop out and lack skills for employment are more often unemployed than others. They have higher crime and delinquency rates. They pay little in taxes and appear more often on welfare rolls. For corporate America, and for state and local governments, they represent a $20 billion-a-year-loss....

CHALLENGES

To Education Leaders:

... Effective early education is far less costly than remedial education. Preventing students from dropping out is less costly than training dropouts.

... [F]or high-risk youth ..., what we are doing now does not work.... If a youngster is not responding to a normal program, try something new. If that does not work, do something else.

Reform must move into postsecondary education as well. Too many institutions of higher education view the at-risk teenager as someone else's problem. As the entry-level job pool shrinks, so does the pool of potential undergraduates.

- ... We challenge education leaders to be as daring in their reform as the most daring businesses have been in their efforts to adjust to a new world economy.
- Early childhood education helps children who are at risk.... We need more and better early childhood enrichment programs.
- Quality after-school care ... is especially important for children of poverty.
- As a baseline standard ... every 6th grader should be able to read, write, speak and compute at a 6th grade level. Those who cannot should not be relegated to remedial programs that only repeat the pedagogy that failed the first time.
- High school dropouts need opportunities to drop back in.... They need separate schools within schools, alternative schools that are truly alternative, work-study programs or cooperative education programs. The need for these options far exceeds their availability.
- Secondary schools, community colleges and four-year institutions should expand cooperative programs for meeting the educational needs of their clients and create new collaborative programs where the need is clear.

To Business Leaders:

The businesses and unions with whom youth make their first contacts with the world of work must make an effort to see that any youth who wants to work has the opportunity to do so.... Business and labor must also see to it that the early job experiences of young people are positive experiences....

- Join in cooperative education programs that connect students to role models in the world of work....
- Assure that the resources available through the Job Training Partnership Act and similar programs are used to build or support successful programs for at-risk youth.
- See to it that every job is an opportunity to develop character and self-esteem....
- Develop incentives for employees to stay in school, go back to school or go on to further schooling.
- Develop networks and contact with public and private organizations that specialize in training at-risk youth for specific jobs....
- Develop transportation options that link young people to jobs....
- Provide opportunities for employees to work with schools and programs that turn troubled young people around. Donate in-kind services, facilities and materials to programs that work.
- Get behind schools that demonstrate sound management, clear goals and positive results....
- Sponsor seminars on business expertise useful to schools attempting to restructure....
- Form business advisory councils, roundtables and other forums for discourse on public policy issues....

To Policy Makers:

... Create the incentives. Remove the barriers.... Revamp state and federal programs for at-risk youth where they are not accomplishing their aims. Coordinate youth programs and develop opportunities for all youth to work, either in private-sector jobs or in public service programs.

... This country is undergoing profound economic, social and demographic transformations that will insure continued pressure on our schools and businesses to be more productive, more creative and more responsive every year than they were the year before....

- Develop community and state service opportunities to deal with unemployed, underskilled, idealistic or disconnected youth all at the same time....
- Create incentives for widespread adaptation and replication of successful youth education, employment and service programs.
- Coordinate programs to maximize incentives and eliminate barriers....
- Consider new structures and procedures for effecting the transition from school to work or other productive pursuites.... Many at-risk youth lack the knowledge and sophistication required in making the transition from school to future work and learning opportunities. Young people today need more and better guidance than ever before.

... The keys to dealing effectively with this problem are leadership and collaboration. There is no single answer, no single or simple solution to the problems of at-risk youth. We know that schools can and must play major roles in any collaborative approaches to these problems. If they cannot do so in their present institutional form, then they must be flexible enough to find new and better ways to integrate at-risk youth into the mainstream.

ATTACHMENT X

jobs for youth/chicago INC.

67 East Madison Street, Room 1900, Chicago, IL 60603 (312) 782-2086

A DESCRIPTION

PURPOSE

The purpose of Jobs for Youth/Chicago is to help young men and women from poor families become self-reliant, independent and self-supporting adult members of the community. The program works with youth who are between the ages of 16 and 21 years who are no longer in school. One means of carrying out the mission is by assisting young clients to prepare for, find and keep jobs in area business and industry. Also, it provides remedial academic instruction and G.E.D. preparation where appropriate. All services to the young people who come for help are intended to develop those qualities necessary for self-sufficiency.

A key to Jobs for Youth's effectiveness is that it offers every enrollee two full years of supportive services to assist with job changes, promotions, resolution of job-related problems, remedial education, and school enrollment. "We believe that this continuity of service and support is critical at a time when our young clients are striving to become independent adults."

All efforts have one unifying theme: To enable these youths to become fully participating, self-reliant working members of the community.

THE YOUNG PEOPLE SERVED

Most of the disadvantaged young people who come to Jobs for Youth/Chicago for help, and who are served by the nonprofit, charitable organization, are Minorities. Here the rate of employment for Minority youths has declined in the past 12 years, while the employment rate among white youths has risen during the same period (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics). This disturbing fact has special meaning for Chicago which has a 55 percent school dropout rate and a predominantly Minority youth population (Chicago Reporter, May 1980). Simply put, large numbers of Chicago's young people -- again, most of them Minorities -- are growing to adulthood lacking fundamental skills that are prerequisites to any career growth.

Further, there are very few alternatives currently available to this large out-of-school population to assist these young people. Because of these realities, combined with decreasing government support of programs for these youths, it is expected that their participation in Chicago's labor market will continue to decline or, at best, remain well under the national rate. Also, unless at some point, academically deficient young workers master reading, math and communications skills, these deficiencies will become permanent barriers severely limiting both the range of work they can perform and their career options.

THE JOBS FOR YOUTH PROGRAM

The program has three basic components: 1) The Learning Center, 2) Counseling Services, and 3) Employer Services. Each unit works closely with the other two, and each has a specific function with respect to both the youths and the employers who hire the program's young people.

Jobs for Youth/Chicago, which depends largely on corporations, foundations and individuals for operating support, offers its services free of charge to both the youths and employers with whom it works.

When a youth applies to the program, he or she is assigned a counselor (Counseling Services) who explains the program to the youth, including what is expected of the young man or woman and what he or she may expect of the program.

Next, the youth is enrolled in a three week Pre-Employment Workshop. The Workshop offers a comprehensive curriculum covering the basic prerequisites needed to get and hold any job. Until the youth successfully completes the Workshop, no action will be taken with respect to helping her or him to find a job. Attendance and participation are paramount for successful completion of the Workshop. Academic skills will neither help nor hinder a youth's performance in the Workshop. Concurrently, Workshop personnel may be working with a mix of highly literate, articulate youths as well as slower learners.

The counselors use the Workshop performance records of the young enrollees as a basis for their efforts to help the youths become "work ready" -- that is, to assure that the youth is adequately prepared to successfully gain and hold a job. Some youths are work ready as soon as they have finished the Workshop. Others need substantial additional preparation. This may range from counseling toward appropriate dress and behavior on through "survival" math or reading instruction in order that the youth can properly fill out an application form. For the latter, the counselor will refer the youth to the Learning Center for remediation of this problem.

In addition to its remedial services, the Learning Center also operates a G.E.D. preparation program open to all enrollees. And the Center is structured in such a way that the learner can continue studying even after he or she has begun working.

In regard to employment assistance, Jobs for Youth acts as a broker between youths who want to work and employers who have unsubsidized jobs that need to be filled. For example, one young man from Chicago's far west side Austin neighborhood secured a job at a major Loop bank with the help of Jobs for Youth. Without its preparation and guidance, it is doubtful whether he would have considered seeking work in the Loop, especially at a major bank.

When the counselor feels that the youth is "work ready," the counselor will advise an Employer Services Representative as to the youth's work-related qualities and interests. The Employer Services Representative is charged with the task of locating an appropriate job opening, presently from among about 350 Chicago area employers. Depending upon the youth's age, skills and experience, the placement may range from that of a restaurant busboy to a job with a major retailer, bank or factory.

Usually, the Employer Representative speaks with the prospective employer after the job interview and advises the counselor on the outcome. The counselor then discusses the results with the youth. Once the youth is hired, the counselor maintains regular contact in order to head off problems and offer support when needed. If the youth has an unsuccessful interview, the counselor uses this experience as a basis to prepare the youth for the next interview, and so on, until the youth is placed.

After the placement has been made, the counselor will contact the youth every week during the first month of employment, and monthly thereafter, to monitor the young worker's progress on the job, as well as to help her or him to resolve job-related problems as they occur. Often, the counselor may take the initiative in helping the youth get a promotion or a better job. Thus, in this regard, about one-third of the placements will be "upgraded," that is, moved to better jobs with the help of Jobs for Youth.

In a 12-month period the program will place more than 600 youths in jobs. A comprehensive study of youth programs commissioned by the U.S. Department of Labor found the Jobs for Youth program to be extremely effective in preparing and placing this hard-to-employ group in full-time jobs.

SUMMARY

Jobs for Youth offers two years of supportive services to enrollees, helping them to prepare for, find and keep unsubsidized jobs and to correct the academic deficiencies they may have. All of these free services are directed towards helping each enrollee to become an independent and self-sufficient adult.

ATTACHMENT XI

PUBLICATION SOURCES

(ALPHABETICAL BY AUTHOR)

Publication and Author	Address	Cost of Publication
Reconnecting Youth: The Next Stage of Reform, Business Advisory Commission	Education Commission of the States Distribution Center 1860 Lincoln Street, Suite 300 Denver, CO 80295 (303) 830-3692	$10.00
Equality and Excellence: The Educational Status of Black American, College Entrance Examination Board	Director of Publishing 45 Columbus Avenue New York, NY 10023-6917	Unk.
Minority Enrollment in Higher Education Institutions: A Chronological View, College Entrance Examination Board	Director of Publishing 45 Columbus Avenue New York, NY 10023-6917	Unk.
Here They Come, Ready or Not, Education Week	Suite 775 1255 23rd Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20037 (202) 466-5190	$2.00
All One System: Demographics of Education, Kindergarten through Graduate School, Harold L. Hodgkinson	Institute for Educational Leadership 1001 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Suite 310 Washington, D.C. 20036 (202) 822-8405	Unk.
The Indiana Fact Book: 1985, Indiana Business Research Center	School of Business Indiana University Bloomington, IN 47405 (812) 335-5507	$23.00
Annual Report, Indiana Commission for Higher Education	143 West Market Street Indianapolis, IN 46204-2896 (317) 232-1900	Unk.
Final Report on Minority Student Participation, Indiana Commission for Higher Education	143 West Market Street Indianapolis, IN 46204-2896 (317) 232-1900	Unk.
Access to Higher Education: The Experience of Blacks, Hispanics and Low Socio-Economic Status Whites, Valerie Lee	Div. of Policy Analysis and Research American Council on Education One Dupont Circle, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20036-1193	Unk.
High School Graduates: Projections for the Fifty States (1982-2000), William R. McConnell & Norman Kaufman	Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education P. O. Drawer P Boulder, CO. 80302 (303) 497-0200	Unk.

Demographic Imperatives: Implications for Educational Policy, Ian McNett	American Council on Education One Dupont Circle, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20036-1193	Unk.
Employment Policies: Looking to the Year 2000, National Alliance of Business	1015 15th Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20005 (202) 457-0040	Unk.
The Reading Report Card: Progress Toward Excellence in Our Schools, National Assessment of Educational Progress	Educational Testing Service Rosedale Road Princeton, NJ 08541 (800) 223-0267	Unk.
Hispanics in the Labor Market: 1980-1985, National Council of LaRaza	Twenty F Street, N.W. - 2nd Floor Washington, D.C. 20001 (202) 628-9600	Unk.
Technology and Structural Unemployment: Reemploying Displaced Adults (Summary), Office of Technology Assessment	Congress of the United States Washington, D.C. 20510	Unk.
High School Dropouts: A National Concern, Samuel S. Peng	Education Commission of the States Distribution Center 1860 Lincoln Street, Suite 300 Denver, CO 80295 (303) 830-3692	Unk.
School Dropouts in Perspective, Michael W. Sherraden	Education Commission of the States Distribution Center 1860 Lincoln Street, Suite 300 Denver, CO 80295 (303) 830-3692	Unk.
Industrial Robots: Forecasts and Trends, Donald N. Smith & Peter Heytler, Jr.	Society of Manufacturing Engineers Dearborn, MI 48121	Unk.
Minorities in Higher Education: The Changing Southwest (by State), Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (& The College Board)	P. O. Drawer P Boulder, CO. 80302 (303) 497-0200	Unk.
OFFICE OF MANPOWER STUDIES PUBLICATIONS:	Knoy Hall of Technology Purdue University West Lafayette, Indiana 47907 (317) 494-2559	
Bibliography of Manpower Reports		None
Bibliography of Manpower Tid-Bits		None
Higher Education Attendance Rates of Indiana High School Graduates, 1983-84 (Tid-Bit No. 85-3)		None
Occupational Employment Projections (Tid-Bit No. 86-1)		None